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Administering Teachers' Co-operations

EDITORIAL

AN ARTICLE in this issue, based on an investigation of teachers' non-instructional responsibilities in almost half a hundred junior colleges, finds these "co-operations" to be a prominent part of the teachers' work load. The evidence reported has implications both for programs of teacher preparation and for junior-college administration, but those for teacher preparation only are voiced in the article. The conclusions bearing on administration are no less important and, because of their origin in extensive evidence and their general cogency, rise almost to the sanctity of principles. Several are set down in brief here for consideration by teachers and administrators.

1. Responsibilities for co-operations now spread to most members of the instructional staff and ought to reach all. In any dynamic junior-college situation a host of activities and organizations is involved, and it is unfair to unload them on some

teachers and permit others to evade them.

2. The policy in recruitment of new teachers should include consideration of the candidates' ability and willingness to carry responsibilities in co-operations. Many administrators have been following this principle for years, but they find the teacher-training institutions lagging behind the need both in preparing teachers for the responsibilities and in assembling information concerning the qualifications of candidates for positions.

3. Co-operations should include responsibilities in guidance for all teachers in some degree, although the extent of responsibility may vary from one teacher to another. Beyond this, the co-operations for individual teachers should include responsibility for some extra-curriculum activity or organization or for administration in some departmental or other supplemental capacity.

4. So far as possible, to foster effectiveness in the discharge of the responsibilities, an instructor's co-operations should be allied to his teaching subject, for instance, sponsoring publications by teachers of English or coaching athletics by teachers of physical education. The paucity of co-operations which are "naturals" for some teaching fields sets up an obstacle to full application of this principle in administration. In the minority of instances where it seems necessary to assign co-operations unallied to teaching subjects, assignments should take account of teachers' strong hobbies outside their teaching fields or should otherwise be such as to assure immediate or early efficiency in the co-operations.

5. For most co-operations no special time allowance on the teaching load need be made. Allowances were not made for most co-operations represented in the investigation, and only a small proportion of co-operations without fractional time allowances required more than an hour per day. Other studies have found the responsibilities in co-operations taking up, on the average, about a fourth of the teachers' total work day in class and out. For a minority of co-operations, frac-

tional concessions on the normal teaching load in proportion to the time and effort required should be made.

Implementing a policy made up of principles like the foregoing should make for equitable assignment and effective discharge of the many important responsibilities represented, but it will accomplish more than this. Inquiries have disclosed that the knowledge of students derived from association with them in their extra-curriculum activities is of substantial aid in making guidance valuable. From this finding it may be inferred that a wider distribution to a faculty of responsibilities in the extra-curriculum phase of the co-operations will enhance the guidance service. The decentralization of administration that is attained through a widespread distribution to staff members of administrative co-operations is progress toward democracy in administration and is synonymous with the faculty participation in school control which is now so generally commended. The composite outcome of these advantages is an over-all integration of a junior college that promotes its educational efficacy.

LEONARD V. KOOS

A Study of the Church-related Junior Colleges

GOULD WICKEY

THE Board of Education of the United Lutheran Church in America made a study of the junior-college movement and the place of the church's educational program in that movement. As part of that study, an effort was made to get some particular data on the church-related junior college, which seemed not to be available anywhere. The facts thus gathered are reported in this statement.

At the time of the study in 1948, 183 church-related schools maintained junior-college status. Replies to the inquiry were received from 138, or 75.4 per cent, of these institutions. Some 8 per cent more were received after the study was closed. The facts submitted in these additional returns do not essentially change the conclusions reached in this study. The denominational breakdown of the replies is shown in Table 1. All replies did not answer all questions; hence the num-

ber of replies does not apply equally to all items of inquiry.

The questions concerned the date of founding of the school; type of school according to sex of the student, academic grades included, and curriculum; size of the community

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF CHURCH-RELATED JUNIOR COLLEGES REPLYING TO INQUIRY ACCORDING TO DENOMINATION

Denomination	Number of Junior Colleges	
	In Operation	Replying to Form
Baptist	35	28
Catholic	44	23
Lutheran	16	16
Methodist	40	35
Presbyterian	15	11
Others	33	25
Total	183	138

where the school is located; enrolment and percentage of students living from the college a distance up to 50 miles, from 50 to 200, and from 200 up; finances, including endowment, property value, indebtedness; tuition with possible increase in near future; church and local support. Finally, the question was asked whether the churches should enlarge their educational programs in the junior-college field.

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The data are interesting and informing. Some prevailing wrong opinions concerning the church-related junior college will be clarified by this information.

Number of Church-related Junior Colleges

The Handbook on *Christian Higher Education*¹ for 1940 reported that in 1939 there were 189 church-related junior colleges, excluding teachers' colleges and normal schools. There is considerable evidence for the statement that the churches have closed, or changed the status of, more junior colleges than they now operate. One denomination reported that in 1935 it had three universities, 26 colleges, 17 junior colleges, and four academies but that it had closed 174 colleges and 149 academies throughout its history. The situation of five church groups during the past fifteen years is shown in Table 2. In these figures, the effect of the war is evident. It is not known whether the churches would have established more junior colleges if there had been no World War II.

It is common for a denomination to establish a junior college and then to raise the institution to the status of a four-year college. This is natural since the churches have

been more interested in the major professions, such as the ministry, teaching, and medical missions, than in the semiprofessions and the skilled trades.

During 1947-48 four schools became four-year liberal arts colleges, and one was in process of closing. Today there seem to be 183 church-related schools functioning as junior colleges.

The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF JUNIOR COLLEGES OPERATED BY FIVE DENOMINATIONS IN 1932, 1941, AND 1947

Denomination	1932	1941	1947
Baptist	31	43	36
Catholic	18	42	40
Lutheran	20	17	16
Methodist	41	38	38
Presbyterian	16	21	16
Total	126	161	146

has awakened the churches to the necessity of a careful study of the junior-college field.

Dates of Founding

It has been reported that the first *private* junior college was Lewis Institute in Chicago, established in 1896, which later developed into a four-year college and now is known as the Illinois Institute of Technology, after being joined with Armour Institute. Further, the first *public* junior college was established in Joliet Township (Illinois) in 1902 by extending upward by two

¹ *Christian Higher Education: A Handbook for 1940*, p. 156. Edited by Gould Wickey and R. E. Anderson. Washington: Council of Church Boards of Education, 1940.

years the Joliet Township High School curriculum.²

It is well known that the church has pioneered in many fields of education and has been interested in the junior college. Some years ago Dr. W. C. Eells ventured to the writer the opinion that the first junior college was established by a church in Texas but the exact year was not recalled.

The reports in this study indicate that there are 54 church-related schools, now rated as junior colleges, which were established prior to 1896, and in that year five church-related schools, now called junior colleges, were founded. The earliest date is 1787. Ten of the church schools, now called junior colleges, were founded prior to 1850; 62, from 1850 to 1900; and 61, from 1900 to 1948. During the period 1890-1900, 25 were established—the largest number for any one decade. The latest was founded in 1947.

Further investigation has revealed that many of the church-related schools, now called junior colleges, were founded as academies or as four-year liberal arts colleges. For example, one school founded in 1824 as a "seminary" started junior-college courses, registered by the state, in 1934. The school founded in 1787 started junior-college courses in 1915. The dates of found-

ing are significant because they reveal that most of the church schools now functioning as junior colleges, or with a junior-college division, were founded before 1900.

Types of Schools According to Sex Served

Of 469 junior colleges in the nation in 1932, 70.0 per cent were coeducational, and in 1947, 78.0 per cent of the total of 663. Of the 287 privately supported junior colleges in 1932, 52.3 per cent were coeducational, and of 337 in 1947, 58 per cent were coeducational, 13 per cent for men, and 29 per cent for women.³

Of the 138 church-related junior colleges reporting in 1948, 65 per cent are coeducational, 11 per cent for men, and 24 per cent for women. About 10 per cent are thinking of changing to coeducational status. Some of the schools for women break down the sex barrier and admit men from the community. They have been doing this for some years, especially beginning with the depression years of the 1930's. They continue to do so in spite of the fact that they are advertised as colleges for women.

Coeducation is the definite trend among the junior colleges. If

² a) Walter Crosby Eells, "Junior College Growth," *Junior College Journal*, II (February, 1932), 290-92.

b) Shirley Sanders, "Analysis of Junior-College Growth," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (February, 1948), 307-13.

³ Leonard V. Koos, "Rise of the People's College," *School Review*, LV (March, 1947), 138-49.

the program suggested by the President's Commission on Higher Education is carried out, many more schools now conducted for men or women only will be compelled to become coeducational.

*Types of Schools According
to Grades*

The predominating type of junior college is the two-year institution. Of the 648 institutions listed in the "Junior College Directory, 1947," 599 (92 per cent) are two-year schools. It is reported that 40 colleges, 19 tax-supported and 21 privately supported, operate on a four-year basis.⁴

Of the 133 church-related schools reporting on this item, 57 per cent are two-year institutions, that is, have only Grades XIII and XIV; 13 per cent include Grades XI and XII; and 30 per cent include the four years of high school (Grades IX-XII, inclusive). This high percentage covering a six-year curriculum is expected in church schools, since many of them were founded as academies and have added Grades XIII and XIV to become junior colleges.

It is interesting to learn that 20 per cent of the church schools plan to become four-year liberal arts colleges by adding Grades XV and XVI, that 7 per cent expressed the possibility of adding Grades XI and

XII, and that 5 per cent thought they would drop Grades XI and XII.

Sexson and Harbeson, in their study of *The New American College*, reported their belief that the four-year junior college will tend to dominate the pattern of junior-college organization.⁵ With this judgment there may be agreement, since it appears junior colleges will be more closely related to secondary education. However, that does not seem to be the trend among the church-related junior colleges.

*Types of Schools According
to Curriculum*

Koos,⁶ an authority in this field, reports that most junior colleges began by offering only courses which matched the first two years of college or university. Their purpose was to *prepare* students for the years of specialization in college and university. However, with the popularization of the junior college, accompanied by the enrolment of a majority of students who did not continue their studies at higher levels, leaders began to realize the need for *terminal* courses, the chief purpose of which is to provide preparation for various occupations without further education. In recent years an increasing number of junior colleges are concerned with *ter-*

⁴ Winifred R. Long, "Analysis of Junior-College Growth," *Junior College Journal*, XVII (February, 1947), 233.

⁵ John A. Sexson and John W. Harbeson, *The New American College*, pp. xvii, 133. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

⁶ Leonard V. Koos, *op. cit.*

terminal general education. Today, the trend is definitely toward a general-education core, as nearly alike for all students as possible, allowing for preparation for studies at higher levels and preparation for occupations.

Of the 135 church-related junior colleges reporting on their curriculums, 23 (17 per cent) are preparatory only (or "transfer," as many prefer to say), five (4 per cent) are terminal only, and 107 (79 per cent) are both transfer and terminal. No indication was given as to the field of emphasis. It would appear that the church-related junior colleges are following the trend by offering *terminal general* education. This makes for economy of administration and, no doubt, for efficiency in teaching. Only schools with fairly large enrolments can afford to offer both transfer and terminal curriculums. If a school has "preparatory emphasis with terminal orientation aimed at a few local students," it will have an expensive program owing to class size and necessary equipment.

Size of Communities

The schools reporting the size of community are located in centers ranging from a village of 65 to cities like Los Angeles, Chicago, and New York. While the large cities increase and the villages decrease the average size of the community in which church-related junior colleges are

located, it is interesting to learn that the populations of the communities average 105,775. This is quite different from the frequently expressed opinion that the church junior college is generally located in a small town. The median community has a population of 5,000. The population of the communities in the first quarter range from 3,000,000 to 30,000; in the second quarter, from 30,000 to 6,000; in the third quarter from 5,000 to 2,000; and in the fourth quarter from 2,000 to 65.

No facts were available concerning the size of communities in which the tax-supported junior college is located. Sufficient information is at hand, however, to conclude that the size of these communities is larger.

Enrolment and Distance Traveled

Data from the "Junior College Directory, 1948" show that the average enrolment of tax-supported junior colleges is 1,040; of privately supported institutions, 343.⁷

The 138 church schools reporting on this item for this study have a total enrolment of 38,417, with an average of 278. The range is from 2,247 to 11, with a median of 230. The first quarter begins at 2,247; the second, at 348; the third, at 230; and the fourth, at 150.

There are 12 schools founded more than fifty years ago with

⁷ Shirley Sanders, *op. cit.*, p. 311.

fewer than 150 students. Of this number, six are Catholic and Lutheran schools which have limited their students to men for the ministry or women for the sisterhood. Where schools have no such limitation on enrolment, a small enrolment generally indicates poor location with inadequate constituency, both church and local, and no distinctive curriculum.

It appears that the church-related junior college is becoming more and more a community school, similar to the tax-supported junior college. One hundred and nineteen schools report that 47 per cent of their students travel up to 50 miles. One hundred and nine schools say that only 22 per cent of their students travel 200 miles and more. There is not sufficient information to justify the statement that the students of church-related junior colleges come from wide distances, although there are some poorly located church schools which must obtain students from great distances. The population density of the location of a college is always a large factor in obtaining students. This continues to be true unless the institution has such a distinctive program that students are attracted from long distances.

Finances

As to endowment, 83 church-related junior colleges reported a total

sum of \$15,417,266, an average of \$185,750. Catholics and Lutherans are not strong on endowing their junior colleges. Only one Catholic school reported any endowment and that in the amount of \$100,000. Eight Lutheran schools reported endowments averaging \$4,463, which really is so small as not to be considered in any financing program. The Lutheran junior colleges, similar to the Catholic schools (preparatory schools for theological seminaries), are fully supported by the Church and are without need of endowment.

Nineteen Baptist schools reported an average endowment of \$166,842; 25 Methodist schools reported an average of \$107,591; and 11 Presbyterian schools reported an average of \$268,000. Nineteen schools from other religious groups reported endowments which averaged \$346,589.

The first endowment quarter begins at \$3,174,744; the second, at \$201,324; the third, at \$100,000, which is the median; and the fourth, at \$45,000.

Regarding property value, 116 schools reported a total of \$64,005,330, ranging from \$3,000,000 to \$12,000, with an average of \$551,770 and a median of \$432,271. The second quarter begins at \$700,000; the third, at \$432,000; and the fourth, at \$250,000.

The property value of 27 Baptist schools totaled \$15,310,000 and

averaged \$567,037; 10 Catholic schools totaled \$11,190,000 and averaged \$1,119,000; 16 Lutheran schools totaled \$7,748,000 and averaged \$484,250; 31 Methodist schools totaled \$12,710,473 and averaged \$410,015; 11 Presbyterian schools totaled \$5,361,000 and averaged \$487,363; and 24 colleges related to various church groups totaled \$11,685,857 and averaged \$486,911.

The indebtedness situation is interesting since only 29 schools (21 per cent) reported any indebtedness, and this totaled \$2,634,917, with an average of \$90,859. The indebtedness ranged from \$950,000 to \$2,000, with a median of \$25,000. The indebtedness of three Baptist schools totaled \$31,000 and averaged \$10,333; three Catholic schools totaled \$1,880,000 and averaged \$626,666; three Lutheran schools totaled \$33,900 and averaged \$11,300; 10 Methodist schools totaled \$187,017 and averaged \$18,702; one Presbyterian school had a debt of \$25,000; and nine schools related to other church groups had debts which totaled \$478,000 and averaged \$53,111.

Tuition Rates

Only 112 schools of the 138 reporting schools submitted usable data on tuition. In spite of the fact that the figures were not to include board and room, a considerable number included these items. Some schools did not indicate whether a

term was a semester or a quarter. The tuition rates for a year seemed to range from \$500 to \$40. The average for Baptist schools is \$177; for Catholic, \$176; Lutheran, \$161; for Methodist, \$211; for Presbyterian, \$180; and for the other schools, \$214.

Church Support

Eighty-five schools reported a total church support of \$1,546,278, with an average of \$18,191 per year. The range is from \$56,000 to \$300. Twenty-two Baptist schools averaged \$22,305; 12 Lutheran schools averaged \$30,304; 25 Methodist schools averaged \$13,064; eight Presbyterian schools averaged \$12,290; and 18 schools of various church groups averaged \$14,861. The information from the Catholic schools on the amount of annual church support was not clear. Because the members of their teaching orders do not receive salaries as Protestant teachers do, the data from Catholic schools would hardly be comparable. In a few cases the schools may have included special grants for the year 1947-48 rather than amounts that might be considered regular annual grants. This would tend to increase the average.

Enlarging Programs of Church-related Schools

The conclusions of the President's Commission regarding the need for many more schools of junior-college

grade, both related to the public-school system and separately organized, located geographically in economical relation to population centers, and established by public institutions of higher learning, through action by the state, and through private foundations, has caused some individuals to conclude that the church ought immediately to rush into the junior-college field. For this reason the leaders of the church-related junior colleges were asked: "Should the church develop a larger program in the junior-college field?" The replies are revealing.

One hundred and sixteen gave answers which were definite enough to be used. Fifty-six (48.3 per cent) gave an unqualified "Yes"; 18 (15.5 per cent) gave a definitely qualified "Yes"; 36 (31.0 per cent) had an absolute "No"; and six (5.2 per cent) were doubtful.

Apparently, educators interested in the church-related junior college realize that it would be unwise for the church to enlarge its program in this field. No experienced educator denies that a large future is open

to the junior college because of its essential qualities or characteristics—its intimate relation to the community; its knowledge of the occupational needs of the community; its flexible program, easily adjustable to changes and innovations; and its opportunity to assume, in large measure, as its own particular field the skilled trades and the semi-professions.

These facts, as well as other data on the junior-college movement in general, indicate clearly that each denomination should study the needs of its total constituency, its whole educational program, the educational programs of other denominations in similar territory, the educational programs of the various states and communities and their future plans, and then determine its own attitude to the junior college as regards both an immediate and a long-range program. Experienced educators warn against extensive establishment of junior colleges except as communities offer minimum resources for financial support and enrolment or as the colleges may be supported from other sources.

The Veteran at Taft Junior College

JOSEPH P. COSAND, JR.

MUCH has been said about the veteran since his return to college to complete the education which was interrupted by from one to four years spent in the armed forces. He has been extolled for his courage in returning to school, as well as condemned for being the recipient of hundreds of millions of taxpayers' dollars. We have read that he has done outstanding work, that he has caused the academic standards to be lowered, that he has stimulated administrators to revise curriculums, that he is a loafer who is "riding easy" on sixty-five dollars a month. It is time that we attempted to analyze the effect that he has had on our system of higher education. With this in mind, I wish to present an analysis of the veteran at Taft Junior College.

Veterans Attending Taft

The enrolment at Taft Junior College has averaged two hundred students for the last four semesters, of whom from 40 to 50 per cent have been veterans. The backgrounds of these men varied from one year of

high school to two years of college, and it was necessary to rearrange the course offerings to include materials desired by certain groups of students. This was not easy to do in such a small school, but every possible attempt was made to help the veteran achieve his objective.

Deciding on the correct objectives was troublesome for most veterans, for they were inclined to aim only at professional or semi-professional jobs regardless of their own academic preparation or capacity. It was, therefore, necessary to develop a counseling and guidance system which would help the student schedule a program commensurate with his interests and abilities.

The school interests of the veteran had changed since pre-war days, and, with the junior college utilizing the same buildings as the high school, a situation arose in which the veterans were dissatisfied with the immaturity displayed on the campus. This difficulty was remedied, to some extent, by providing the junior-college students with a separate lounge, more freedom, and increased responsibility.

When he first returned to school, the veteran was optimistic about

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his future. He felt that his abilities were such that he could accomplish anything. Consequently he had high hopes of being able to enter medicine, law, dentistry, engineering, and a host of other highly academic professions. Seldom did he have an objective which would lead him to what might be called the "dirty-hand" jobs. His interest was almost entirely in "white-collar" work of various sorts.

Upon entering into academic fields, many veterans found themselves unable to cope with the requirements of the work, for they were limited in their scholastic preparation and abilities. The frustration which arose from failure to achieve academic success presented the veteran with a difficult problem. The following alternatives were open to him: drop school and go to work, change from an academic to a vocational program, or continue in an academic field.

Those who were qualified at the start have achieved excellent results in the academic field, but the less qualified students who have remained in academic work have continued to receive low scholastic marks. Their poor work was caused by an overreaching and an overestimating of their capacities and potentialities. Many of this group, although unhappy in their work, refused to accept academic failure and continued to overreach, with the hope of achieving nearly im-

possible objectives. Observation from counseling seems to show the same result—a dogged persistence with high hope of attainment.

Members of the group who changed their objectives were induced to do so through self-realization of their limitations. The members of this group were not forced to this conclusion but were advised, through the combined efforts of the junior-college counseling staff and the Veterans Guidance Center, to enter fields in which they would have a better chance to achieve success. On the whole, students of this group are better adjusted and are more confident of success than are those in the academic group who have determined to continue regardless of their capacities.

Students in Academic and Terminal Courses

In order to compare the achievements of the veterans with those of the nonveterans, and to determine whether there has been an improvement in the veteran's work after his service experiences, we have compiled data from the records of those men students who had attended Taft Junior College steadily for the three semesters of fall of 1946, spring of 1947, fall of 1947. Any information obtainable before the fall of 1946 would not be valid, for, owing to the many program changes and curriculum revisions necessitated by the diverse needs of

the returning servicemen, the period was one of flux. One hundred and sixty subjects were used in this study, and their grade-point averages were carefully compiled. An average of the grade-point averages of the students was computed, and comparisons were made on this basis. No student who had not at-

transfer courses, with the expectation of continuing their education in four-year colleges and universities. The data show the academic capacity of the two groups to be almost identical as measured by high-school aptitude tests and junior-college entrance examinations. However, the high-school

TABLE 1.—RECORDS OF VETERANS AND NONVETERANS PURSUING COLLEGE-TRANSFER AND TERMINAL COURSES IN THREE SEMESTERS

	<i>Students Pursuing College-Transfer Courses</i>		<i>Students Pursuing Terminal Courses</i>	
	<i>Veterans (60)*</i>	<i>Non- veterans (30)</i>	<i>Veterans (40)</i>	<i>Non- veterans (30)</i>
Average percentile on American Council Psychological Examination given all college Freshmen55	.55	.37	.14
Grade-point average in junior college:				
Fall, 1946	1.10	1.35	1.00	0.97
Spring, 1947	1.20	1.05	1.03	.87
Fall, 1947	1.15	1.08	1.23	1.09
Average intelligence quotient from high-school record†	111	112	108	105
Grade-point average in Grades X, XI, and XII	1.40	1.57	0.99	1.09

* The figures in parentheses show the number of students represented.

† From tests administered while students were Juniors and Seniors in high school. Most of the students were tested with the Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability.

tended for the full three-semester period was included, for that would have involved a number of students who were attempting to find themselves on a trial-and-error basis.

The first part of Table 1, comparing the achievement of the veteran and the nonveteran academic students, was compiled from the records of sixty veterans and thirty nonveterans. These students were those who were taking college-

grade-point averages do show that, while in high school, the nonveterans worked more nearly up to capacity than did the veterans. Comparing the high-school with the college work leads to the conclusion that the veterans have improved the caliber of their work after service experience.

What caused this improvement? Two theories can be advanced. First, there is the aspect of ma-

turity and responsibility. Many of the veterans are married, and several have children. Family status should provide the impetus needed for more conscientious study. Second, there is the effect of the war years on the veteran before he left high school. Many of these students were unsettled during their Junior and Senior years because of the realization that they would probably be inducted into the armed forces. Such uncertainty undoubtedly resulted in lower grade-point averages and could explain the difference between the average of 1.40 for the veteran against 1.57 for the nonveteran during high-school years.

Table 1 also compares the non-academic veterans and nonveterans. These students were enrolled in the terminal courses and expected to complete their education at the end of the fourteenth year. The data show that the veteran is doing a little better than is the non-veteran in the terminal courses. The grade-point averages vary from a differential of 0.03 for the first semester to 0.14 for the third semester. In scholastic aptitude the veteran registers higher on both examinations and should, therefore, be expected to do better work. This superiority would, then, account for the consistent differential shown for the three junior-college semesters. The grade-point averages for the high-school years duplicate the re-

sults for the academic students. The average of 0.99 for the veterans compared with 1.09 for the nonveterans indicates that there was a failure to work up to capacity during the early war years when the veteran was still in high school.

Conclusions Reached

An objective analysis of these data would seemingly indicate the following conclusions:

1. There is no evidence that the often-repeated phrase, "The veteran is doing much better work than the nonveteran," is valid. The achievements of the two groups vary only within very narrow limits.

2. There is some evidence that the veteran is working more nearly up to capacity than he did while in high school. This improvement could be explained by the fact that, while in high school, he was in a state of confusion caused by his approaching induction into the armed forces. Also it is true that his added responsibilities have necessitated a more serious attitude on his part.

With regard to the effect of the veteran upon the junior college itself, the following observations can be made:

1. He has brought to the campus an added maturity. This maturity has given him an interest in the improvement of the college.

2. Curriculums have been revised to correspond more nearly

with the needs of the students. Changes have been particularly noticeable in the vocational fields and the social-science department. The veteran is interested in our domestic and international affairs and wants more emphasis placed on current events in the social-science classes.

3. The veteran has been dissatisfied with the necessity of going to school with high-school students and has voiced his opinion often and loud that the junior college should be entirely separated from the high school. This is also the opinion of the Taft Junior College faculty, and it could probably be corroborated by other two-year junior colleges that are an integral part of the high school.

4. The veteran's interest and energy have been a stimulation to the administration and faculty of the school, with the result that there has been a noticeable tendency to strive to improve the

course content and the methods of presentation.

5. The veteran's needs have necessitated revisions in the guidance program. The Veterans Administration guidance program has helped in this respect, and it is planned that the Taft Junior College guidance program will develop into as complete a service for all students as is now given to the veterans by the Veterans Administration.

The veteran has been, and will continue to be, an asset to higher education. He has brought interest, ideas, and energy into the continuous effort for improvement of our educational system. He is academically able to accomplish only so much and is not outstripping the nonveteran in his marks. However, he has definite objectives, even though some are beyond his reach, and his determination to achieve his aims has been a stimulus to the faculty and the student body.

A Philosophy of Education for Counselors

ROY IVAN JOHNSON

THE recognition of counseling as an essential function in the educational program is comparatively recent. The word "guidance" has been on the lips of administrators for years, but only within the past ten years has any widespread effort been made to provide effective counseling service for all students. Organizational plans for implementing this important educational function have pyramided rapidly—so rapidly, in fact, that we face the danger of mistaking *form* for *substance*. A good counseling organization, with neatly drawn charts and blueprints, does not insure good counseling any more than a good administrative organization, with its rules and regulations, will insure good classroom instruction.

I do not minimize the importance of good organization and good administration, but I insist that all education must be evaluated in

terms of results, that is, its impact on student thinking, on student attitudes, on the development of habits of behavior, and on the direction of student growth. Thus, all of us who are working in an educational program, teachers and counselors alike, must have a student-centered philosophy of education. This focus must not waver. It must not come to rest upon scholarship as the sole end and aim of college experience; it must not shift to regulations, transfer requirements, credits, and marks as the criteria of college success. These are in the picture, but only as they are components of a larger pattern of individual growth.

One's philosophy of education becomes a frame of reference by which he justifies his procedures and judges his results. Too often staff members come on the job with some highly specialized interest or with a certain administrative facility but with little understanding of people or of the objectives of the college program. In such cases the only solution is in-service training. Through continued interchange of ideas, under responsible direction and leadership, common aims and

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understandings are established, and concerted effort may be brought to bear upon the crucial problems of student growth and development. If such common understandings are lacking, the force of the program is weakened through diversity of direction.

Basic Tenets of a Philosophy

What are the basic tenets of an educational philosophy upon which a successful counseling program may be predicated? The first, to which I have already alluded, is the recognition of the individual student as the focal point for all educational thinking, all educational planning. Wood and Haefner's new book, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth*,¹ is prefaced by a quotation from Emerson, "The secret of education lies in respecting the pupil." This, I take it, means respecting the individuality of the pupil and his right to the fullest possible development of his potentialities. Education for a democracy can accept no other premise, for democracy is essentially the political expression of a faith in people and a guaranty of individual rights and liberties.

Corollary to this concept is the definition of education as the full and complete development of individual personality—not the acqui-

sition of certain stores of knowledge, not the mastery of certain technical or vocational skills, not the development of social finesse or a surface code of acceptable manners. The educated person is the competent person as he deals day by day with the normal experiences of living. He meets personal and social challenges with poise and intelligent decision. He is not an eccentric person, expert (let us say) in music but lost in a fog when it comes to furnishing a room, conversing with a friend, purchasing a new wardrobe, or remodeling the family budget.

Another important concept is that of the continuing nature of education. Individual development is not, or *should* not be, arrested at the termination of college. Each year is a step along the path toward maturity. College puts the tools of learning into the student's hands; it accelerates the process of growth and self-improvement; it molds attitudes that carry over into post-college days; it awakens interests that act as a spur to continued effort. As the counselor or the teacher works with a student, therefore, he is concerned with much more than an immediate problem of behavior. He is concerned with the important job of habit formation. Every problem becomes a problem in the study of values, the deepening of insights, the gaining of new understandings, the shap-

¹ Ben D. Wood and Ralph Haefner, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1948.

ing of attitudes. In other words, education is more concerned with setting the sails for a successful life-journey than with a two-year or four-year yacht race.

A fourth fact to remember (particularly in a junior college or a liberal arts program dedicated to general-education objectives) is that the successful attainment of educational aims depends on integration of effort rather than on separate, isolated attacks by different departments or agencies. General education seeks to develop in students a series of competencies in the various areas of life-experience and life-interest. To that end, curricular reorganization has been effected which recognizes aesthetic experience, social relationships, civic interests, mental and physical health, consumership, communication skills, occupational activities, family life, and ethical and religious values as basic areas of training essential to a well-rounded education for living. The objectives in these areas may be, in some instances, purely subject-matter objectives; but in the main they are, or should be, "student-behavior" objectives. They look toward the development of attitudes, the changing of standards and values, the formation of habits, the exercise of certain abilities, the cultivation of desirable character traits.

These objectives are not the exclusive property of any one class,

department, or division. Student-behavior patterns are developed by the impact of experience as a whole, not by some segment of learning which is usually measured by true-false examinations or textbook tests. It is obvious that good citizenship cannot be incubated and nurtured exclusively in social-studies classes. The habits and attitudes characteristic of good citizenship must be college-wide objectives, and every teacher, counselor, and administrator must be keenly aware of his obligation to promote student growth toward this specific goal. In other words, the objectives of general education are more than subject-matter objectives. They are lateral emphases that cut across the student's total experience. Therefore, as the counselor or the teacher encounters a problem or a unit of content that lends itself to the reinforcement of program objectives, it is the responsibility of that counselor or teacher to "point up" student learning by appropriate emphasis and application in the light of the ends to be attained.

This suggests two things with respect to the work of the counselor. First, the counselor must, in some measure, be an opportunist, quick to see the potential relationship of certain experiences to the over-all purposes of education and skilful in focusing the student's attention on the meaning and value of the

experience. It suggests also that the specific objectives of the basic curricular areas should be carefully formulated and thoroughly publicized so that all staff members (whether teachers or counselors) may relate their work more intelligently to the expected end results. Here is one of the weaknesses of most college programs. I seriously doubt whether the teachers in any department or division of the curriculum can state in specific terms, with any hope of agreement, a set of objectives which goes beyond the obvious knowledge and skill implicit in the subject matter.

Function of the Counselor

All this may lead you to inquire: "How broadly do you interpret the function of the counselor?" The scope of student counseling is as broad as the scope of student problems and student needs. Good counseling looks toward good living, and it ignores none of the problems and experiences which might contribute toward a fuller realization of that goal. The counselor must try to recognize any breakdown in the student's adjustment to his experiences, his environment, his responsibilities—inability to handle money, bad taste in dress, an overdeveloped ego, prolonged juvenility, fear, chronic laziness, symptoms of worry, nervous tensions, boredom, overdominant personality, habitual indecision, inability to

study, and so on through a long category of signs and symptoms that advertise specific deficiencies or indicate an incomplete social or academic adjustment. This is not to imply that the counseling function should be restricted to students who are conspicuously in need of help, though such "cases" should be identified as promptly as possible and all salutary measures taken. Some of the most important fruits of counseling, as of teaching, come from efforts expended in helping good students become better students. Counseling is not primarily clinical and remedial, though it must often deal in remedial measures. It is constructive and developmental. It recognizes that personality is built around strength rather than weakness and that frequently the whole pattern of thought and behavior is influenced through acknowledged achievement in a special field of interest or through discriminating commendation of certain abilities, attitudes, or personal qualities.

In what way do the concepts of education presented in the early part of this discussion influence the *practices* of the counselor, his methods of work? First, the recognition of individuals as individuals precludes any formula or prescription which can be automatically applied even when problems seem to be similar. As Wood points out in his new book, the same pair of glasses will

not improve the vision of all students.² Neither will the same program of action get the same results from all students. In one case the desire for recognition and approval may be achieved through social channels; in another, through demonstrated ability in class, in hall organization, or in outstanding musical performance. Just as a teacher, if he respects the individuality of a student and acknowledges *individual differences* in aptitudes, interests, abilities, and needs, must keep his class program flexible, a counselor also must adjust his methods and procedures to the case in hand.

This theory of individualized education sounds logical and receives the indorsement of most educators who know anything about modern psychology, but it is a theory which is far easier to preach than to practice. Tradition runs strong in the blood of teachers. And traditional education is education by prescription, by rule and regulation, by fixed requirements for all. The genius of the American people for mass production is reflected in the "factory philosophy" which dominated the schoolroom for many years and which still dictates the practices of more colleges and universities than we like to admit. Even in so-called "progressive" schools, there is more mass prescription in practice than can be justified by the institution's philos-

ophy. It takes courage and ingenuity to cut the educational pattern to fit the student; it is relatively easy to warp the student to fit a standardized pattern. Our salvation lies in keeping the focus on the student. Otherwise we shall drift into the common error of valuing the symbol rather than the substance, the method rather than the principle, organizational "efficiency" rather than educational outcomes.

Another point to be kept constantly in mind is that counseling reaches far beyond the student's temporary problems. It is concerned with building the kinds of attitudes and habits, the kinds of discriminating judgments, the kinds of continuing interests and personal drives that will project themselves into post-college years and insure continued growth and increasing self-dependence in dealing with new problems and situations. Therefore the counselor helps the student to explore and discover far more often than he charts a specific course of action. He points out alternatives and helps the student to weigh and consider values instead of "telling him what to do." The counselor stimulates the student to think his way toward intelligent descisions instead of making decisions for him.

However, this indorsement of the nondirective method in counseling does not imply, according to my thinking, the exclusion of all

² *Ibid.*, p. 48.

directive action. Like all good things that make their way into educational thinking, this theory of counseling has been seized upon by enthusiasts and been made into a sacred commandment. There are few, if any, "rules" of counseling that may not, or should not, be modified by a discerning counselor in the light of the immediate purpose to be served. There are some cases in which the student *should* know what the counselor thinks. Sometimes the virtue of frankness is all-important. It may help to establish rapport and confidence. Ordinarily the experienced counselor can sense when it will pay to be direct in answering questions about a student's problems.

Also, it must be borne in mind that some directive action on the part of the counselor is desirable in order to bring the student into contact with certain experiences the values of which are considered essential to the student's further progress. Take these samples of conversational advice. What are they if they are not directive? "I should like you to read this book. Notice especially the way Alice works out her problem." "Why don't you ask Mr. Jones to explain the assignment to you?" "You had better write your mother about that permission." "Try budgeting your time for a week and see how it works." The point is that there is a time and place for natural and friendly

exchange of opinion and suggestion. The ultimate aim, of course, is to strengthen your student's ankle bones so that he can stand confidently on his own feet. In achieving that purpose, you will use as many devices and methods as may be consistent with your best psychological insight and appropriate to the individual personality with whom you are dealing.

Counseling an Integral Part of Education

In conclusion, let me point out that counseling is an integral part of the total educational process—and often the vital factor in determining the values which a student gains from his college experience. The counselor, therefore, needs a clear understanding of aims and purposes. He needs to know what education is in terms of its contribution to student growth. He needs an underlying philosophy of education to which he can give "heart service" as well as "lip service" and by which his methods and procedures are justified through logical and psychological relationship to basic principles. Until we can bring our educational practice into harmony with our best educational thinking, we shall continue to experience partial frustration and defeat, and our educational results will be something less than half a loaf instead of the full loaf to which the student is entitled.

Pity the Poor Freshman!

DORIS HARTWELL HAWSE

TO THOSE of us whose first days at college recede more and more into the nostalgic past, a full realization of the Freshman's problems is difficult or impossible. Yet it is universally conceded that the beginning college student sorely needs organized help of some type to orient him to his new subject matter and, many times, to his new experience of hard work.

One version of such an orientation program was offered by the writer, with the co-operation of a progressive administration and of several instructors, at Averett College in Danville, Virginia, several years ago, and part of the material has since been used in isolated assembly talks elsewhere. At Averett the medium of presentation was one period a week of the daily assembly hour, where attendance could be controlled by the limitation of "cuts" just as in any class. The taking of notes was suggested but not enforced. No checking of results by quizzes or other methods was made.

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How-To-Study Theme

Within the course itself the organization depended on the general theme of how to study. A presentation of fundamental methods and principles by the writer was enlivened as often as possible by their application to those specific subjects which seemed to present the widest divergence in student approach or preparation. These special subject methods were designed to be covered by the instructors into whose fields they fell, inasmuch as those teachers would be *au courant* with the latest and the most efficient techniques therein. Separate talks were suggested, therefore, for the subjects of English, the modern languages, history, the sciences, mathematics, and the commercial field. Others could be added indefinitely, but the additional courses offered at Averett, and at most colleges, seem to fit fairly well into the methods used for those listed. For example, sociology and economics can be approached with the general techniques used for history or for the sciences, since all are factual courses to a great extent. Another separate section included the customary introduction to the library (its con-

tents, arrangement, and use) by the librarian.

Before, after, and sandwiched among, these special talks, the writer held forth on the topics outlined below, always with emphasis on the practical and immediately usable and with much concrete illustration from classroom, dormitory, and sorority-house experience and observation. If the material suggested coincided with formal educational theory, personal experience was checked against the conclusions of several modern writers in the field, so that the result represents a consensus of current educational thought.

Reading

Selected as one of the fundamentals was reading—an accomplishment unmastered by at least half of our students after twelve years of education, and the root of many student shortcomings. Such obvious (to the teacher) devices as underlining key words, spaced reading, reading in large thought units, efforts to speed up (with more devices) were set forth by the usual teaching techniques of statement, restatement, and illustration, and specific applications were made to college situations.

Taking Notes

Note-taking was considered of basic importance because it is usually another fundamental weakness in study methods. Here the

speaker, with others in the field, advised a choice of method halfway between the outline and the paragraph note; forming the full outline requires too much attention at the expense of material, while unorganized notes are somewhat difficult to study by. An outline of two levels, with paragraph notes under these, points up relationships without going into the intricacies of numerous subtopics. Students were, of course, advised to eliminate needless words; to use only standard abbreviations; to leave a wide margin for revisions and additions; to number pages; to digest and restate rather than to quote (to read or listen until a point is clear and then condense it into a note); to guard against overmuch parenthetical, explanatory, or illustrative material. After the class, early review of the notes just made is important, since forgetting is fastest twenty-four hours after hearing. At this time a brief restatement of the main points in a lecture, orally or in writing, is one of the finest means of grasping essentials. The importance of accurately labeled diagrams, definitions of special terms, and inclusion of references in the notes was stressed.

Of course, effective note-taking is a rare process requiring intensive practice, deep interest in logic and efficiency and relationships, and much above average intelligence, all applied over a period of years. No one who is so much a practicing real-

ist as is an experienced teacher would expect that teaching a group of principles would effect such an end, but teaching them may save some of the time and labor of the trial-and-error method.

Developing Interest in a Subject

Let us leave the relatively mechanical for a look at more subtle concepts, such as developing interest in, and thinking about, the subject to be studied. For inspiring interest in courses perhaps not stimulating to them at first, the students were asked to try to define their objectives, since aimless work is dull. Such objectives may run all the way from an immediate aim, such as working out a Punnett square for inheritance, to a more far-reaching one, such as outlining the development of the early English drama. Both set a goal, provide a purpose.

The ideal study environment, familiar to all of us, was sketched. Proper environment fosters an atmosphere of study and can help stir an interest in it.

A positive attitude, with the expectation of success, and appreciation of minor successes, are helpful. Try to connect aspects of the subject with everyday life, with personal experience, if possible. Learn as much as can be found about the subject, within and outside the assignment. The more one knows of a matter, the more interesting it be-

comes, since dislike of the unfamiliar is a fundamental human trait.

Knowing the psychological value of fooling one's self is useful: assume interest if necessary. Look and act interested, plunge into the uninviting with vigor. Study the dull-est or the most difficult part at the most favorable time and under optimum conditions. Danger points, where interest flags, lie before warming up, when first novelty wears off, at the point of change from lower to higher skills (as, in language, from words to idioms), and near the limit of perfection (when progress seems relatively slow). Spaced study, change of material or method, rest periods, all judiciously used, can be helpful remedies for loss of interest.

Rules for Thinking

Suppose, then, that interest is flourishing. How is the student to bring the highest powers of his mind to this study which so much interests him? How can he be sure he is *thinking* about it?

Pure thinking, as distinct from memory or passive comprehension, comprises much college work: problem-solving, associating of ideas into trends or philosophies, comparison or contrast, evaluation or criticism, any type of activity wherein the mind must manipulate or add to the bare facts. Since all thinking originates in a problem of some kind, however slight, the

student was urged to define his problem, to localize or limit it, whether it be a historical period or a biological principle. Writing was suggested to aid thinking; writing stimulates new ideas, clarifies the line of thought, helps keep the whole problem before one, leaves a clue to the thread of thought. Discussion with others helps formulate indefinite thoughts, both by the comments of others and by one's effort to articulate. An effective and neglected trick is the self-question method: the listing of every conceivable question on a topic, with the answers. Tabulating, sorting, and classifying have their uses; comparisons and contrasts arise, and the essence of good thinking is the ability to see relationships. Finally, allow plenty of time for "thinking it over."

In studying, as everywhere, the importance of a wide vocabulary cannot be overestimated. Generally psychologists consider the size of the vocabulary a fair index of the intelligence. In thinking, shades of meaning can be expressed and terms accurately defined only if the command of words is broad and sure.

Learning To Remember

Memory is always a troublesome factor in education as elsewhere. Some of the same devices already mentioned can be applied to the problem: the will to remember, spaced repetition, no incorrect repe-

titions, and energetic action. Furthermore, the students were told, it is essential to *understand* the material to be recalled. State it in simple words and in several different ways; define terms; see it in thought units, not as unrelated groups of words.

Association is vital—a fact used in most memory courses. Try to tie up the new matter, by whatever tenuous threads, to what is already known. Even ridiculous mnemonic tricks are useful if they work *for you*. The more kinds of associations, the stronger their hold on the fact. Bonds are made even by such mechanical aids as position on the page, accompanying pictures or diagrams, writing down, saying aloud, noting a rhythm. Group the details to be learned. Try to classify them into lists or patterns of any kind. Arrange in logical sequence or order if possible, such as order of importance, of time, of size, of color, of cause.

Learn by wholes, not parts. It is ordinarily more effective to repeat a whole poem, chapter, or other unit from beginning to end than to repeat a part of it at a time. The latter technique associates the end of the part with its own beginning, over and over again, while in the former the selection is seen as a whole, together with what precedes or follows it. However, if parts are uneven in difficulty, the part method may be used on the hard-

est sections, the whole method afterwards. The latter postpones the sense of achievement, but only to the point at which the whole assignment seems suddenly learned all at once.

It is beneficial to learn according to use, although not necessarily exclusively. If the matter is to be used orally, learn it so, in the main. Oral repetition is helpful for all types, however, since the ear remembers the sound, as it were. Also the muscular action impresses the material in its own manner.

Suggesting rest periods is dangerous advice for the average student, who rests with inborn efficiency anyway. Nevertheless, the fact was brought out that the mind shows an increased tendency to forget what has just been learned if it is forced to shift without pause from one task to another, although, if memory is not the primary aim, such a change is mentally refreshing. Hence giving a little time for the brain to relax or to digest its last meal is always appreciated in memorizing.

The value of recall at frequent intervals was emphasized. Silent, vocal, or written calling-back of what has just been learned both impress it further and reveal the progress made. After the material has been mastered, review from time to time is still necessary. As has been said, forgetting is most rapid within twenty-four hours; then a more gradual loss sets in. However, it is encouraging to notice that after a

thing has been learned and forgotten completely, as far as conscious memory goes, it is still more easily relearned than learned the first time.

Lastly, such general principles as to trust one's memory (fear of forgetting causes much of it), a determined will to remember, and intensity while learning, were repeated. The group was advised not to clutter up their mental store-rooms with such useless lumber as items heard on quiz programs or lists of interesting, "believe-it-or-not" facts.

Hints on Reviewing

The next general topic was reviewing as a method of preparing for tests. It was pointed out, however, that review differs from cramming in that it helps learn or relearn as one goes along, while cramming is last-minute memorizing. Reviewing is for permanent values, cramming for (questionable) temporary good. Constant review prevents forgetting; a final review perfects, checks up, organizes, consolidates the course.

As to methods of review, use the one to be tested on if it is known. Otherwise vary the techniques to prevent monotony and to give as many opportunities as possible for recall at the time of testing. The essay type of question or the short-answer variety may be foreseen, respectively, by organizing the subject and writing it out according to various points of view or by break-

ing it up into detailed questions and answers. Outlining, group discussions, formulating questions and answers, all kinds of repetition, visual or auditory association, dependable class notes, condensing, and combining—all can be used in review, as elsewhere.

When adding new material to the old, try to see the new in various associations with the old; try to view the course in units and as a whole. New significance, new points of view, may be brought to mind by the new matter. Weld the whole together by means of trends or other large associations.

Taking Tests

What of the test for which so much learning, study, and review are preparation? If possible, find out the kind of test to be given and prepare accordingly (every student seems to know this approach instinctively). Reading and understanding the test directions are of paramount importance. Follow directions exactly; do not try to drag in whatever you know to fill in. It is generally considered advisable to make some kind of answer to all essay-type questions, as the attempt may help recall more by some sort of association. Answer the questions in the order of their difficulty; warm up on a few easy ones, then do the worst, finally the other easier ones. Do not put off the hard points until mental fatigue sets in.

Try desperately hard for good marks at first. It is usually fatal to

assume that a few low marks can be pulled up later, for low early marks have a bad psychological effect, and it is difficult to pull one's self out of the slough of failure. Start out strongly, and you will probably continue so.

Possibilities in the Program

Here ended the general material. The reader is reminded that it was not administered to the students in such overwhelming doses of theory but that the talks were sweetened by concrete illustration, nearly all omitted here, and varied and divided by the special lectures and by the intervening week of assemblies.

The whole program appeared to be well thought of by the administration and by those teachers interested in educational theory. Certain student comment which pierced the iron curtain reflected appreciation of the practical value of the course material.

Such an orientation plan could be expanded to include social help where needed, practical psychology on human relations, and such other student problems as might arise in a specific institution. It could also be organized as a one-hour credit course, one semester long, with short quizzes to test attention. Most vital, however, are the study aids above mentioned, since, after all, a student attends college primarily for the purpose of educating himself mentally. We must teach him not only *what* but *how*.

A New Role of the Junior-College Library

CRAWFORD BEECHER THAYER

IN A recent article, Edith M. Gorman, librarian of the Joplin (Missouri) Junior College, wrote: "The modern ideal of a college library as the 'heart' of the institution finds its truest expression in the junior-college library."¹

We know that it is possible for a junior college to lose its head and still retain its faculties, but, if the library is indeed the heart of an educational institution, the careful observer can only conclude that junior colleges have a bad case of heart trouble. The present condition of junior-college libraries is somewhat comparable to a medical case wherein the heart of a child ceased to develop although the child continued to grow. The heart, serviceable enough for the child, was highly inadequate for the man. Just as the child outgrew his heart, the junior college's demands are outgrowing the services of its library.

Librarians have been dealing

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with books from a time long before the burning of the library at Alexandria, and they have consequently been conditioned into thinking that their services revolve completely around books. However true this may have been even twenty-five years ago, it is not true today. Modern technology has made rapid advances which have thrust new responsibilities upon libraries. If the junior-college library, as the heart of the educational institution, is to serve its students with maximum efficiency, it must recognize a new role and be willing to assume it.

This new role of the junior-college library is to collect, house, and make available for student use, all phonographic recordings which will inspire, instruct, and enrich the student during his college life.

Do we mean by this definition that the junior-college librarian is now to be held responsible for acquiring recordings of famous speeches and of plays by Shakespeare? That the librarian is to locate and purchase recordings of American and English poets read-

¹ Edith M. Gorman, "The Junior-College Library Is Better!" *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (March, 1948), 403.

ing their own works? That the librarian is to acquire transcriptions of the D-Day invasion of France and of the coronation of the King and Queen of England? That the librarian is to have available for students in secretarial courses various dictation exercises with the material recorded at different speeds? Does this new role of the junior-college library mean housing French, Spanish, and German language records, or Raymond Massey's reading of the "Gettysburg Address" or Admiral Peary's discussion of his North Pole expedition? Is that what is meant when we state that a new role of the junior-college library is to collect, house, and make available for student use all recordings which will inspire, instruct, and enrich the student during his college life? The answer is, "Yes, indeed."

Unfortunately a first reaction to this new role may be the librarian's exclamation, "What, another 'extra' job!" But we must remember that the junior-college library differs in function from the senior-college library. The latter is designed to have material in readiness for students undertaking scholarly work, whereas the former is built for students in the first two years of college. We in the junior college deal, for the most part, with students who will terminate their formal education within its walls. It is certainly our duty to equip them with

facts and philosophies and skills which will make them more efficient citizens and happy human beings. But it is also our duty to inspire our students, to thrill them with the process of becoming educated. If by our teaching, made more dynamic by the use of audio-aids, we can excite the students by the glories of past achievements, we may instil in them the enthusiasm which may flower into future accomplishments.

Imagine, for example, a course in American political philosophy, and think how much more meaningful it would become if the students could hear from the lips of Franklin Delano Roosevelt the very policy-making words which constitute the reading assignment for the day. Think of a class hearing Wendell Willkie coining the phrase "one world" or President Roosevelt declaring war on Japan, or listening to Raymond Massey reading Lincoln's "Second Inaugural Address." Think of the words of Hamilton and Jefferson coming, by proxy to be sure, directly into the classroom.

Recordings which would effectively supplement the regular assignments are available for almost any course, except the sciences, for which films are available. Recordings must not be considered a substitute for, but rather a supplement to, effective teaching. In the English literature course, for example, any student who could listen to Sir Laurence Olivier, as Henry V, call

his men to battle with the blood-thrilling exhortation, "And upon this charge, cry 'God for Harry, England, and Saint George'," without involuntarily reaching for his sword and straining in his seat, could be moved by nothing.

Recordings of readings by contemporary poets can easily be acquired; language records are issued by several companies, as are English and American dialect records. George Bernard Shaw may be a member of every junior-college faculty for \$7.50, and his lecture will be perpetually entitled "Spoken English and Broken English." (Incidentally, the records are autographed.) For the drama classes you can invite Noel Coward and Gertrude Lawrence to do several delightful scenes from Coward's plays. Or perhaps you would like to hear portions of "King Richard

II" read "in a pronunciation probably spoken in the south of England in the seventeenth century."

Junior-college administrators as well as librarians must perceive and accept this new role of the junior-college library, and, working together, they must see to it that adequate listening facilities are constructed for students who will turn to the library for this new and thrilling experience. No junior-college library which lacks a rich supply of educational records or lacks proper facilities for these records to be heard by students outside the classroom can claim that it is fulfilling its obligations to the student body. A new role for the junior-college library has been written by science. It is up to us as teachers and administrators to learn our parts and to play them with magnificence and confidence.

Junior-College Teachers' Co-operations

LEONARD V. KOOS

REPORT is made in this article on the outcomes of an inquiry into the noninstructional responsibilities of junior-college teachers, that is, what are here called their "co-operations." As will be seen, these responsibilities spread through a great diversity of activities and make up a considerable part of the work of most junior-college teachers. Four earlier articles, published in the *Junior College Journal* in October and December, 1947, and February and April, 1948, have concerned the same teachers. These have had to do with (1) the teachers' total preparation, as measured by degrees and periods of graduate residence; (2) subjects taught and specialized preparation as reflected in graduate and undergraduate majors and minors; (3) their preparation in the field of education; and (4) their background of experience.

The teacher population is essentially the same as that represented

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in the earlier articles and includes those at work in 1940-41 in forty-eight local public junior colleges of the three main types—separate two-year, associational (two-year housed with high schools), and four-year—distributed to eight states in the Midwest and the South and to California. On grounds of expedience arising from the number of teachers involved and the adequacy of responses, one of the institutions represented in the earlier articles has been replaced by another for which reports were fairly complete. The substitution has resulted in a somewhat smaller total number of teachers, 1,228, but one still amply large to justify the inferences drawn.

The information analyzed for this article was supplied by the teachers in a final section of a three-page schedule used as the source of evidence in the whole investigation, of which the study reported in this article is only a part. The section was headed "Other Duties" and had places for entries of (1) "any special titles" of the other-than-teaching positions held in the institution, (2) the "chief type of activity" represented, (3)

the "level or levels" (junior-college or high-school), and (4) the portion of time assigned for the work. Because the section was at the end of a rather long schedule, it might have been expected that answers would be sketchier and more fragmentary than those on other sections, but experience with entries throughout the schedule warrants

leges of different enrolments who reported responsibilities and of the distribution of the co-operations to certain classifications. These compilations are reproduced in Tables 1 and 2. The first table is so organized as to show the numbers and proportions of teachers reporting co-operations in junior-college years, at the high-school level only,

TABLE 1.—NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES OF DIFFERENT ENROLMENT GROUPS AND IN ALL JUNIOR COLLEGES REPRESENTED REPORTING RESPONSIBILITIES FOR CO-OPERATIONS

Level	Teachers in Colleges with Enrolments of						Teachers in All Colleges (48)	
	Fewer than 200 (14) *		200-499 (22)		500 and Over (12)			
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
In junior college	105	52.0	260	53.2	264	49.2	629	51.2
At high-school level only	25	12.4	54	11.0	26	4.8	105	8.6
None or no report	72	35.6	175	35.8	247	46.0	494	40.2
Total	202	100.0	489	100.0	537	100.0	1,228	100.0

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of junior colleges represented.

the assertion that the answers here were no less conscientiously made than elsewhere. This conscientiousness supports a belief that teachers regard these additional responsibilities on which they made report as important parts of their professional activity.

Overview of the Co-operations

PROPORTIONS OF TEACHERS WITH CO-OPERATIONS.—A general picture of the co-operations in the forty-eight junior colleges is presented through compilations of the proportions of teachers in junior col-

leges of different enrolments who reported responsibilities and of the distribution of the co-operations to certain classifications. The proportions do not vary widely from size to size, although that for the group of largest junior colleges is somewhat smaller than for the smaller size groups: when co-operations at the two levels are counted, about two-thirds of the teachers in the first two size groups had such responsibilities and the proportion in the group of largest institutions was well over half. The proportion of all teachers represented who had

such responsibilities is seen, in the last column of the table, to be almost three-fifths and is doubtless even larger, in view of the fact that at least a small number had responsibilities but neglected to report them. Thus the inquiry finds that the typical junior-college teacher carries noninstructional professional responsibilities of some sort.

The point deserves making that many of the teachers reported as having responsibilities in co-operation at the junior-college level have them also at the high-school level. This is especially true in four-year junior colleges and in junior colleges associated with high schools, which, among local public units, far outnumber separate junior colleges, and it is even more characteristic of four-year units than of associations. Inquiry into the exact number and proportion of dual-level co-operations was not made for this article, but the fact of their recurrent existence may be inferred from evidence on continuity of membership in student organizations reported elsewhere by the writer.¹ Some of the advantages of dual-level assignment of responsibility in co-operations may also be inferred from the same evidence.

NATURE OF THE CO-OPERATIONS.

—A first look at the *kinds* of co-operations is provided in the second

table. The evidence used in this table concerns only co-operations at the junior-college level. Of the total of 788 co-operations reported by 629 respondents, about two-fifths were with extra-curriculum activities and organizations, about a sixteenth were in athletics, a fifth

TABLE 2.—NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES IN EACH CLASSIFICATION OF 788 CO-OPERATIONS REPORTED BY 629 JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS

Co-operations	Number	Per Cent
Extra-curriculum .	326	41.4
Athletics	50	6.3
Guidance	159	20.2
Administration ...	253	32.1
Total	788	100.0

were in guidance, and almost a third were classified as administration.

No brief is held for the complete accuracy or acceptability of the classification used. Others at work on such an investigative project might arrive at a different grouping and distribution, but it appealed to the writer as the most plausible that could be devised. Whatever its acceptability, the reader will be able to understand the classification from the further description of activities and organizations in each of the four classifications given in a later main section of this article. In the meantime it is worth noting that the numbers and proportions give greatest prominence to activities and organizations in the extra-curriculum (also known as "student

¹ Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, pp. 129-34. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

activities"). Next in prominence are the administrative co-operations, and following these are the activities in guidance. The number and proportion are smallest for athletics. The reader should know, before leaving this overview, that coaches of specific sports only have been included among the fifty here counted under athletics and that "directors of athletics," because of their administrative function, have been placed in one of the subgroups of the administration classification. If these directors had been counted here under athletics, the proportion for this group would have been appreciably increased.

TEACHERS WITH TWO OR MORE CO-OPERATIONS.—The reader will have noted that the number of co-operations reported in Table 2 exceeds the number of teachers with co-operations at the junior-college level reported in Table 1. The explanation of the difference is that a number of teachers reported two or more co-operations. The actual number of teachers so reporting is 141, and these were distributed according to the number of co-operations as follows: reporting 2 co-operations, 127 teachers; reporting 3 co-operations, 10; reporting 4 co-operations, 4.

Experience and speculation suggest various explanations of why, as noted in Table 1, a large number of teachers are without responsibilities in co-operations, and why,

as just reported, others carry two or more. It may be that the administration lacks a policy of distributing the responsibilities to all members of the staff—a lack which may be accompanied by the mistaken tradition in the minds of some teachers that the only activity of significance in an educational institution is teaching, in the narrow sense of that term. Again, it may be that some teachers either are incapable of carrying, or are unwilling to carry, the responsibilities, while other teachers are more versatile or willing. Beyond this, certain co-operations may be so closely allied to a single teaching field and to one another that efficiency dictates that they be assigned to the same individual teachers. All these explanations have meaning for administration or teacher preparation or both.

A Close-up of the Co-operations

EXTRA-CURRICULUM.—The more detailed view of the co-operations of the junior-college teachers will be provided by reporting the recurrent (twice or oftener) (1) titles assigned and (2) activities or organizations represented. For the extra-curriculum responsibilities, the titles, listed in the order from greatest frequency downward, are as shown in Table 3. Most frequent is "sponsor" or "adviser," although "director," "coach," and other titles also are often used. The designation "coach" as here counted ap-

plies only to nonathletic activities and organizations.

The extra-curriculum activities and organizations reported are to be found in Table 4. The "publications" referred to include, most often, the annual or yearbook and

ATHLETICS.—The only title other than "coach" reported by respondents with any frequency for athletics is "assistant coach," and this appears three times in the teachers' schedules. The activities are the specific sports, and it is hardly

TABLE 3.—TITLES APPLIED BY JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS IN REPORTING THEIR EXTRA-CURRICULUM RESPONSIBILITIES AND FREQUENCY OF MENTION OF EACH

<i>Title</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Sponsor or adviser	211	Member of committee	7
Director	44	Treasurer or auditor	6
Coach	17	Counselor	3
Chairman	16	Manager	3
Supervisor	12		

TABLE 4.—ACTIVITIES AND ORGANIZATIONS IN THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM REPORTED BY JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS AS THOSE FOR WHICH THEY HAVE RESPONSIBILITIES AND FREQUENCY OF MENTION OF EACH

<i>Activity or Organization</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Activity or Organization</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Publications	40	Musical organizations	13
Dramatics, or play production	28	Social programs	12
Subject clubs	21	Women's athletic, associations	11
Other clubs	39	Assemblies	11
Forensics	22	Honor or scholarship societies	8
Religious organizations	21	Activity funds	6
Student organizations	16	Student centers	5
Classes	14	Radio	4

the school paper but also, in one instance, the literary magazine. Among "subject clubs" are the "Writers' Club," *Le Cercle français*, "Engineers' Club," and the like. "Other clubs" are those less closely associated with a single subject field, as "Foreign Relations Club." Most frequent "religious organizations" are the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. The nature of others listed in the table will be apparent without explication.

necessary to take space for naming them.

GUIDANCE.—Recurrent titles in this group of co-operations were as follows: counselor, 96 times; adviser, 36; director, 12. The activities reported are: "advising," 56; "guidance," 55; "counseling," 25; "placement," 11. The first three of these are practically synonymous terms.

ADMINISTRATION.—The recurrent administrative titles reported

by the teachers, with the frequencies for each, are listed in Table 5. They have been distributed for consideration into five groups, namely, primary, departmental or divisional, registral and recording, library, and supplemental.

The first group includes certain of the chief administrative officers of the institutions. Many of the persons in this group are mainly

them social science and physical science. Departmental and divisional heads and chairmen are seldom reported for junior colleges of small enrolments.

The registral and library co-operations require no interpretive comment except for the small number of teachers who are also librarians. This reflects the fact that most librarians do no teaching.

TABLE 5.—TITLES APPLIED BY JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS IN REPORTING THEIR ADMINISTRATIVE CO-OPERATIONS AND FREQUENCY OF MENTION OF EACH

<i>Title</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Primary:		Registrar and recording:	
Dean	22	Registrar	11
Dean of women	17	Library:	
Dean of men	13	Librarian	3
Assistant [to] dean	6	Other supplemental:	
Supervisor	6	Director	43
Director	4	Co-ordinator	12
Departmental or divisional:		Supervisor	10
Head	41	Manager	7
Chairman	25	Treasurer, auditor, or comptroller	6

administrative officers, giving only a part, some of them even a small part, of their time to teaching, but they are included here because they do some teaching. These officers, as may be expected, report their activities as administration or guidance or both.

Titles of departmental or divisional co-operations are usually reported as "head" or "chairman." The departments are the usual ones, like English, chemistry, and commerce, but a few divisions, indicative of the emerging of broad-fields administration of the curriculum, were reported, among

The most recurrent title of teachers reporting other supplemental administrative co-operations is "director." Less frequent titles are "co-ordinator," "supervisor," "manager," and, in fiscal affairs, "treasurer," "auditor," or "comptroller." The activities most often reported are listed in Table 6. The reader will be able, with little difficulty and only slight chance of error, to associate the titles just named with their appropriate activities in this list. On this account and because of the fact that the nature of most activities is at once apparent, this article refrains from

lengthy interpretation. Mention was previously made of the fact that directors of athletics have been classified as administrative officers. The appearance of the Civilian Pilot Training program dates the collection of the evidence used in the article, as many junior colleges had such programs in 1940-41. The list reflects a wide array of supplemental administrative responsibilities.

It may be noted that for Table 7, all co-operations have been placed in two classes, "allied" and "unallied." Those counted as allied are considered obviously related to the subjects taught by instructors reporting them, while those counted as unallied bear no peculiar relationship to the teaching subject or may even be more closely related to some subject other than that

TABLE 6.—OTHER SUPPLEMENTAL ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS AND FREQUENCY OF MENTION OF EACH

Activity	Frequency	Activity	Frequency
Athletics	15	Bookstore	3
Public relations	9	Nursing	3
Adult education (or evening school)	9	Elementary-school supervisor	3
Cafeteria, etc.	7	Research	2
Civilian Pilot Training program	7	Agricultural extension	2
Finance	6	Religious activities	2
Visual aids	4	Farm projects	2
Co-operative program	3	Transportation	2
		Trades and industries	2

ties, and the impression of diversity would be emphasized by naming the activities reported only once.

Subject Relationships of Co-operations

An issue of major moment centers in the relationship of teaching subjects to co-operations. Light on the issue is cast by the results of the analysis next reported. Certain of these results are displayed in Table 7, although evidence from steps preliminary to compilation of the table, in order to conserve space, are textually illustrated only instead of presented in tabular detail.

taught by the instructors reporting them.

Illustration of the procedure followed in arriving at the counts given in the table may be provided by co-operations reported by teachers of English, for which the number of co-operations in this study (133) is larger than for any other subject. By following the classification applied in Table 2, it may be said that, of these 133 co-operations, the extra-curriculum accounted for 84; athletics, none; guidance, 23; and administration, 26.

Of the 84 extra-curriculum co-operations, 66 were identified as

allied and the remaining 18, unallied. Included in the allied were dramatics, or play production, 19; forensics, etc., 14; annual or year-book, 12; school paper, 10; literary or writers' clubs, 3; assemblies, 3; literary magazine, 1; radio broadcasting, 1; and a few others, once each. Counted among the unallied co-operations of teachers of English were Y.W.C.A., 5; class organi-

(4), deans of men (2), and deans of women (3).

Thus, the allied co-operations made up, as seen in Table 7, 104, or 78.2 per cent, of all co-operations reported by the teachers of English, and the unallied, 29, or 21.8 per cent.

Analogous procedures were followed for the co-operations reported for the seven other subjects

TABLE 7.—NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF CO-OPERATIONS ALLIED AND UNALLIED TO TEACHING SUBJECTS

Subject	Allied ^{2/3}		Unallied	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
English (133)*	104	78.2	29	21.8
Foreign language (53)	25	47.2	28	52.8
History (42)	14	33.3	28	66.7
Mathematics (50)	25	50.0	25	50.0
Chemistry (31)	18	58.1	13	41.9
Commerce (85)	59	69.4	26	30.6
Music (23)	20	87.0	3	13.0
Physical education (56)	46	82.1	10	17.9
All (473)	311	65.8	162	34.2

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of co-operations, not of teachers, represented.

zations, 2; League of Women Voters, 2; swimming club, 1; band, 1; etc.

All the 23 co-operations in guidance were counted as allied because guidance can and should be closely related to all subjects taught.

Of the 26 administrative co-operations, 15 were identified as allied and 11 as unallied. The allied administrative co-operations were made up of headships or chairmanships of English departments (8) and responsibility for public relations (7), while most of the unallied were the positions of deans

listed in this table. It may be unnecessary to explain that co-operations in athletics, which were entered on their schedules by some teachers of foreign language, history, mathematics, chemistry, commerce, and physical education, were counted as allied only for physical education and as unallied for the other subjects.

The figures at the foot of Table 7 show that, for all the subjects represented, about two-thirds of the co-operations were classifiable as allied and the remaining third, unallied. The percentages are based

on 473 co-operations, which are about three-fifths of the 788 represented in the study. Doubt is justified that including the rest of the co-operations, which would have required more time than was available for tabulation, would change greatly the proportions of allied and unallied co-operations as shown or disclose wider variation in the proportions from subject to subject. The proportions of allied co-operations for the eight subjects listed range from only a third (for history) to about seven-eighths (for music) of all. Except for English, the proportions are strikingly smaller for academic than for non-academic, or special, subjects. It is worthy of comment that the subject for which the proportion is highest, music, is also the subject for which the largest proportion of activities and organizations formerly in the extra-curriculum, for example, bands, orchestras, and choruses, have been brought into the curriculum, that is to say, have been curricularized. Instances of such curricularization for another subject, English, are the school paper, journalism, and debate.

Allusion was made, at the opening of this section, to the importance of the issue of relationships of teaching subjects to co-operations. Deliberation over the relationships, as just canvassed, should lend support to belief in its importance. The importance stems from

the fostering of educational effectiveness in the co-operations by having the responsibilities represented in them discharged by persons who know most about them. These would logically be the persons to whose teaching subjects the co-operations are most closely allied. For a minority of the co-operations to be unallied may be feasible and even desirable, as when they represent hobbies of instructors outside their teaching fields, for example, the sponsoring of a camera club by a teacher of history whose strong hobby is photography. However, it is safe to affirm that, in the main, co-operations should be allied to teaching subjects.

Time in Co-operations

The request on the schedule for report on time asked for the "portion of time assigned for the work, as 'full-time,' $\frac{1}{2}$, etc." Many reports—279 in the total of 788 co-operations—were entered as fractions of teaching loads presumably officially assigned for discharge of the responsibilities represented. Spaces on the schedule for 276 co-operations contained the word "none" or were left blank, from which one may infer that for these no fractional portion of time was officially assigned. All remaining entries, 233 in number, were made as actual amounts of time spent in the work. These entries were usually made as so many hours per

day, per week, or per semester, although they occasionally took other forms. It seems correct to assume for this group of respondents that, not having been assigned a fractional portion of the teaching load for the work and wishing to comply with the request for information, they reported estimates of time actually spent.

TABLE 8.—NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF CO-OPERATIONS IN THE DIFFERENT CLASSIFICATIONS REPORTED AS FRACTIONAL ALLOWANCES OF TEACHING LOAD

<i>Classification of Co-operations</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Extra-curriculum (326)*	43	13.2
Athletics (50)	19	38.0
Guidance (159)	63	39.6
Administration (253) ...	154	60.9
Primary (79)	59	74.7
Departmental or divisional (70)	35	50.0
Registral and recording (11)	9	81.8
Library (4)	2	50.0
Other supplemental (89)	49	55.1
All (788)	279	35.4

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of co-operations represented.

Compilations from the entries have been made in three tables, Numbers 8, 9, and 10, the first two of which report on the fractional entries and the third on reports of actual time spent. The first of the tables (Table 8) shows the numbers and proportions of each classification of co-operations with fractional entries. The proportions are seen to vary from classification to classification. That for extra-cur-

riculum co-operations is the smallest, being only 13.2 per cent. Those for athletics and guidance are about equal, and just under two-fifths of all. The proportion for administration is relatively high, being three-fifths for the whole group and no less than half for any subclass within it. The figures at the foot of the table indicate that only slightly more than a third of all the co-operations represented on which reports were made were assigned fractional allowances of teaching load for the work involved. The responsibilities in all the others may be assumed to be carried without time allowances.

The distributions of fractions of allowance on teaching load for the 279 co-operations for which respondents made entries on the schedules are shown in Table 9. The fractions range as widely as from $1/20$ to $5/6$. The lowest row of figures in the table reports the median fractions. These medians reflect rather wide typical differences for the different classifications of co-operations. For extra-curriculum co-operations and departmental or divisional headships or chairmanships (under administration), the medians are $1/5$; for athletics (which includes here only coaching) and guidance, the median allowances are $1/4$. Median fractional allowances for primary and registral administration are, respectively, $1/2$ and $2/5$. As has

previously been pointed out, many of these respondents are chiefly administrators and only secondarily teachers and are not far removed from administrators, not included here, who give no time to teaching. For the administration subclassifications, except for respondents

erations for which fractional allowances on teaching loads were not reported but for which actual time expenditures were entered on schedules are displayed in Table 10. Reports were most often made in numbers of hours per week, but, where this was not done, computa-

TABLE 9.—DISTRIBUTION OF CO-OPERATIONS ACCORDING TO THE FRACTIONS OF ALLOWANCE ON TEACHING LOAD REPORTED BY JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS CARRYING THE RESPONSIBILITIES

Fraction of Load	Extra-curriculum (43)*	Athletics (19)	Guidance (63)	Administration					All (279)
				Primary (59)	Departmental (35)	Registrar (9)	Library (2)	Other Supplemental (49)	
1/20	1	1	3	5
1/15	1	2	3
1/14	3	3
1/12	1	2	3
1/10	7	1	7	4	3	22
1/9	1	1	2
1/8	1	2	1	1	5
1/6	4	1	3	1	3	1	6	19
1/5	4	1	12	3	7	1	6	34
1/4	4	5	10	2	5	1	7	34
1/3	6	3	5	7	4	1	10	36
3/8	1	1	2	1	5
2/5	1	3	1	1	6
1/2	6	5	4	13	6	2	16	52
3/5	5	4	9
2/3	1	3	7	1	12
3/4	1	5	1	7
4/5	1	1	2	8	1	1	14
5/6	2	2
Other fractions ..	1	1	2	2	6
Mediant	1/5	1/4	1/4	1/2	1/5	2/5	1/3	1/3

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of co-operations represented.

† Located in the original distribution and not from this table.

who hold departmental or divisional headships or chairmanships, the fractional time allowances are typically larger than for the other main classifications of extra-curriculum, athletics, and guidance, although all distributions overlap extensively on each other.

The distributions of the co-op-

tion for the table was made on this basis. Tabulations were made to the nearest whole number of hours per week.

The medians in the lowest row of figures range only from two to five hours per week; that is, no median rises above one hour on a daily basis. The two medians of

five hours per week are for coaching athletics and the other supplemental co-operations in the administration classification. A count of the totals in the last right-hand column for less than one up to and including five hours per week finds that almost four-fifths of all these

was "none" or no entry was made, we have 509, or almost two-thirds, of all co-operations for which no fractional time allowance was made. This is to say that no fractional time allowance is typically made for co-operations, and it seems safe to conclude, from con-

TABLE 10.—DISTRIBUTION OF CO-OPERATIONS ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK (TO NEAREST HOUR) SPENT IN THEM BY RESPONDENTS

Hours per Week	Extra- curri- culum (129)*	Ath- letics (16)	Guid- ance (47)	Administration					All (233)
				Pri- mary (5)	De- part- mental (10)	Regis- tral (2)	Li- brary (2)	Other Supple- mental (22)	
Less than 1	8	4	12
1	38	3	8	4	1	54
2	23	2	9	1	2	1	4	42
3	15	1	3	1	2	22
4	8	1	9
5	18	3	12	2	3	4	42
6	3	5	1	9
7	1	1	2
8	1	1
10	7	2	3	2	1	4	19
11	1	1
12	2	1	3
15	3	3	2	1	1	10
16	1	1
18	1	1	2
20	2	1	3
30	1	1
Median	2	5	3	2	5	3

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of co-operations represented.

co-operations called for the expenditure of five hours or less per week, or not more than an hour per day. One can readily understand why for this large number of co-operations no fractional allowance on the teaching load was made. If to the number of co-operations here represented (233) is added the number (276) for which the entry

sideration of all this evidence on fractional time allowances and time expenditures, that allowance is made only when the discharge of the responsibilities involved in a co-operation represents a substantial addition to the work load, "substantial" here signifying in excess of five hours per week, or an hour or thereabouts per day.]

*Implications for Teacher
Preparation*

The evidence of this inquiry into the co-operations of teachers has meaning for junior-college administration and for programs of junior-college teacher preparation. In many instances the same facts have implications for both administration and teacher preparation. However, because the conclusions for administration are set down in this month's editorial, this article closes with reference only to those significant for teacher preparation.

The fact that most of these junior-college teachers were carrying responsibilities in co-operations underscores a need for equipping all teachers in training for these responsibilities. The fact that some teachers report no co-operations while others carry two or more hints that some have come to their present positions without such equipment, or with a disposition opposed to assuming the responsibilities. The kinds of co-operations that should be recognized in the

programs of preparation are those found prominent in the analysis and include activities and organizations in the extra-curriculum, in guidance, and in administration of a supplemental character. So far as possible, these activities and organizations should be "naturals" for the candidates' teaching subjects, that is, should be allied to them. This criterion presents no obstacle in guidance, which should be intimately related to instruction in all subjects. Some subjects, however, as evidenced in this study, will be harder put to it than others to find allied co-operations in the extra-curriculum and in supplemental administration.

Equipping the prospective teacher must, of course, go much further than mere identification of the co-operations. The candidate must be given the ability to carry the responsibilities represented, through experience in participation, through systematic study of the activities and organizations, or through both experience and study.)

Junior-College World

JESSE P. BOGUE

Executive Secretary

REMEDIAL READING AT VINCENNES

We are indebted to Dr. C. R. Livingstone, dean of the faculty of Vincennes University Junior College, Vincennes, Indiana, for an interesting report on the progress and results of the remedial-reading program carried on there since 1947. The reason for its establishment was based on the requirement for speed and comprehension for more adequate college reading.

The equipment at first consisted of the latest model of the Keystone telebinocular with the accompanying tests, the Keystone tachistoscope with the appropriate sets of slides for visual-span development as well as phrase-reading, sentence-reading, and jumping digits.

These were supplemented by the Iowa Silent Reading Test, Advanced Forms A and B, in addition to other special tests for use in the proper instances and for special cases.

Students were recommended by the English Department after having been given the Purdue Placement Test in English, Form A. The results of the seven phases of English and rhetoric were charted on a profile card constructed especially for the situation and used by the English Department of Vincennes University. If the profile thus constructed showed a percentile

in reading below the fortieth percentile, the student was referred to the Reading Clinic for diagnosis and remedial work.

After diagnosis as to the kind and amount of difficulties, the proper remedy was used. For the most part, the tachistoscopic training was the most useful, although other remedial exercises and procedures were also used.

After some weeks of training, the amount of proficiency was measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Test, Advanced Form. Form B was given at the close to check against Form A at the beginning. The results as expressed in terms of rate and comprehension were evaluated as follows: rate, mean percentile rank rose from the thirty-third to the sixty-fourth; comprehension, mean percentile rose from the twenty-ninth to the fiftieth. In terms of actual gains in rank, it will be seen that the rate gain was 94 per cent, and comprehension was 72 per cent. Each then had shown that improvement was both possible and that it had actually been done.

With continued addition of further equipment and improving of technique, we look forward to the second year of operation and hope that success may be the values realized by each student thus referred.

The higher marks might seem to indicate a result of the increased power in rate and comprehension, but it must not be assumed that these have been

the sole determining factors. It is obvious that every phase of this procedure was not, nor could have been, brought strictly under control. The results were merely gratifying and seemed to show a rather high degree of correlation. In fact, every student thus receiving remedial-reading assistance moved to higher grading values.

ELECTRONICS WARFARE PROGRAM

Dr. Basil Peterson, president of the Orange Coast College at Costa Mesa, California, announces an interesting co-operative plan between the college and the Naval Reserve for training in electronics warfare. Students who enlist in the program prior to attaining the age of eighteen years and six months are exempt from selective service as long as they continue in good standing in the Reserve. Dr. Peterson further states that it is his understanding that completion of three years of service in the Reserve unit will satisfy the national service requirement. With the thought that this information will be of value to other junior colleges, a number of which have made direct inquiry to the Washington Office, we are publishing the essential features regarding the Orange Coast program:

A. What is the V-3, electronics warfare program?

1. The V-3 program is essentially a volunteer vocational-type training program in the field of electronics. In the platoon units, with normal complement of nine men and one officer, operational

communications, and technical electronics are stressed. Company units which have a normal complement of forty men and five officers, furnish equipment for, and offer training in, operational communications, technical electronics, radar, sonar, and signaling. Units meet normally one night a week for a period of two hours, with choice of night Mondays through Wednesday or Thursday.

It should be noted that, inasmuch as enlisted personnel of any rate and any pay grade, with interest in electronics, are eligible for participation in this program, a man of other than electronics rating may draw training course for his rating and, in that way, get this part of qualification for higher rating completed expeditiously.

Training courses for most ratings are available; also there are curriculums out from the Bureau for some, but as yet not all, phases of electronics-training. The Reserve also furnishes such equipment as is required for the training.

2. The V-3 program is an offshoot from V-6, Inactive Reserve; therefore a prospective member joins V-6 and requests transfer to V-3 (we furnish necessary form for this purpose).

B. Who are eligible to join the V-3 program?

1. Former enlisted men of U.S.N.R. of any rating and pay grade are eligible if they are interested in one of the five phases of electronics.

2. Inactive Naval Reserve officers of any classification, and any rank, up to and including captain, are eligible, if interested in electronics.

3. Nonveterans, seventeen through thirty-nine years of age, who meet the physical and other requirements are eligible.

4. V-10 WAVES, who are interested in electronics, may request transfer to V-3 for participation in this program.

5. Veterans of World War II from other services (Army, Coast Guard, Marines, Air Force) are eligible to enlist in V-6 for transfer to V-3.

6. Certain other individuals, who are either over-age or not physically qualified, may, at desire of Commanding Officer of unit, be informally associated therewith on mutual-benefit basis.

C. Some benefits of participation in the V-3 program which have not yet been incorporated in the inclosed pamphlet are as follows:

1. Nonveteran licensed amateur and commercial radio operators may be enlisted in the V-6 for transfer into V-3 as seamen rather than as apprentice seamen; then, upon satisfactory completion of examination for rating, may almost immediately be rated petty officers—RM3 or RM2 depending on the license held.

2. While enlistments into V-6 are for a period of four years, except in time of national emergency, a man may without delay, upon his written request, be separated from V-6 or V-3. Officers, too, will be separated from unit without complicated procedure. This tends to insure every effort on the part of the District to assist units in their training, to make the training so worth while that membership will be maintained.

3. Those men who were members of Electronic Warfare unit prior to June 24, 1948, and of draft age, must register with local draft board but will be deferred on basis of regular participation in V-3 program.

4. Provisions of the Naval Reserve Retirement Bill include in their scope the V-3 program. Participation in the

V-3 program amounts, virtually, to payments on an annuity which becomes due and payable to the reservist at the age of sixty.

D. Phases of V-3 program

1. The present phase of the V-3 program has included establishments of new units, with commanding officers, quarters, and a nucleus group of semi-trained personnel to assist with training of neophytes. At present all V-6 personnel of the District are being acquainted with the program.

2. The next phase of the program will be to acquaint the general public with the V-3 program; and to develop lesson plans for use by units in their training (to supplement presently available training courses and curriculums).

PALOS VERDES COLLEGE

Junior-college people from "way down East" will remember Dr. Richard P. Saunders, who was formerly president of New London Junior College, New London, Connecticut. During the war this Connecticut Yankee went to the west coast on extensive and important assignments for the U. S. O. He fell in love with California, as many others have before his time and apparently as many are doing day by day. Dick, as he is affectionately known by his friends, decided to stay in the land of sunshine and establish a junior college. About four years ago, a site was secured in Rolling Hills near Los Angeles, and according to a recent news bulletin, remarkable progress must

have been made. The bulletin refers to some of the following points of interest: the library of nearly four thousand volumes; the auditorium, music-room, chemistry building, and art center; ceramics courses for adults; musical recitals; and attendance of the president, faculty members, student representatives at various state and regional professional meetings.

The plans for the college call for a student body, of men and women, limited to three hundred. Weekly faculty meetings are held for discussion of the philosophy of the college and its application to the program of education and student life, educational and institutional policies, and the welfare of individual students. Apparently the college is being developed on the philosophy of personalized education, attention to the problems and maturation of the individual as a person—in short, the “split-log” method of education, with a log short enough so that student and teacher may hear and see each other. Palos Verdes was recently admitted to active membership in the American Association of Junior Colleges.

It will be of interest to watch the fortunes of another privately controlled junior college in California, where free, public education through the fourteenth year has been accepted as a public policy and where this type of education has made greater progress than in

any other state. It is well known that Stanford University, the University of Southern California, and several other senior institutions not supported by public funds have developed and are flourishing along with the great publicly supported institutions, such as the University of California and the state colleges. This writer has heard men in public education in California advance the principle that public education benefits from the presence of strong private institutions.

CAREERS FOR YOUTH FORUM

The New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, located at 300 Pearl Street, Brooklyn, recently sponsored an interesting Careers for Youth Forum with the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle*. Twenty-six general fields of employment were presented and discussed at the main and sectional meetings. Consultants came from education and the various business and industrial fields. Some of the educators were Dr. William Jansen, superintendent of schools of New York City; Dr. H. S. Rogers, president of Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute; Dr. Harry Gideonse, president of Brooklyn College; and for industry there were such persons as Mr. Sterling Mudge, training director for Socony-Vacuum Oil Company; Mr. D. S. Sargent, personnel director for Consolidated Edison; and Mr. R. G. Wright, secretary of the Allied Printing Trades Council. During

the two days of the forum, nearly forty persons who were authorities in their respective fields took part in presenting the program.

Five main objectives were set forth for the forum: (1) to focus wide attention on the subject of vocational guidance, training, and placement; (2) to provide the young people of the metropolitan area with specific and practical information on how to go about solving their individual career problems; (3) to point out the guidance and training facilities available within the New York City area; (4) to give youth the benefit of experience gained the "hard way" by a number of outstanding personalities in various fields, plus the composite advice of panels from within the broader areas of business, industry, and the professions; (5) to establish a simple, effective pattern which can be emulated by other urban communities throughout the country.

"Junior-College World" is indebted to Dr. Otto Klitgord, director of the Institute in Brooklyn, for the full and interesting report of the forum and extends to him congratulations on its success. The forum is an example of what could be carried out in many centers throughout the country.

CONNECTICUT CONFERENCE OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

At one of the recent meetings of the Connecticut Conference of Junior Colleges (there are several meetings each year), the following resolutions were passed:

WHEREAS, Some young people in Connecticut are at present denied the opportunity to secure higher education by reason of economic circumstances, and

WHEREAS, The most economical means for providing such opportunities is by first bringing about a full utilization of the existing facilities for higher education in the state; be it

RESOLVED, That the member-institutions of the Connecticut Conference of Junior Colleges do hereby recommend the appropriation of state funds by legislative act to provide grants of assistance to individual qualified students of proved need who are residents of Connecticut and who elect to attend accredited institutions of higher education in the state of Connecticut.

WHEREAS, The member-institutions of the Connecticut Conference of Junior Colleges recognize the need for continued growth and closer co-ordination of the institutions of higher learning in Connecticut and for the orderly development of higher education in the state; be it hereby authorized to request the State Board of Education to formulate a proposal for a state plan of higher education based upon an immediate and complete survey of needs and existing facilities in Connecticut.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

AMONG the many publications that come across the Executive Secretary's Desk are a large number of student papers. Recently this writer made an examination of over two hundred of these student-campus productions for the purpose of finding out what students in junior colleges are thinking and writing. The great similarity of editorials was striking. There were few apparent differences in the interests and free expressions of ideals and ideas between the independent and the public institutions. Regarding holidays, such as Thanksgiving and Christmas, the religious emphasis of editorials from public institutions was as strong as it was from the private colleges.

Perhaps few readers of the *Junior College Journal* have the privilege of reading as many student papers as is accorded to the folks in the Washington office. For this reason it may be of interest to report some of the findings and examples of editorials. What, then, are the students thinking about these days?

International Relations

Almost without exception, editorials appeared regarding our re-

lationships with other nations and the necessity for better understanding and co-operation. We have selected an editorial from the *Los Angeles Collegian*, Los Angeles City College, because it is typical of what students think they can do about the question:

Hitler had a wonderful army. They were thoroughly indoctrinated with the creed of the superman. They gladly gave their lives so that oppression might survive and grow strong on the blood of the oppressed.

Why was it such a wonderful army?

Because it had been educated to fight for Hitler and Naziism and to give their lives for it.

Education.

Events have proven that this type of education was wrong. Now, in the ruins of once beautiful universities in Europe, in the shadows of doubt, and ignorance of the world over, students are trying to find the meaning of their lives.

It's hard to study when you have no books. And even if you do have them, they do little good if they're outdated and half the pages are missing.

Peace for the world will come only through education.

Here in America, we students have a part to play in world peace, too. It is up to us to help these students in other lands to get the books and materials they need so desperately. In the World

Students Service Fund we have a way of doing it. An agency of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, W.S.S.F. is striving to send books, paper, supplies, and instruments to foreign students.

When you're asked to contribute to W.S.S.F., remember that an investment now will mean a secure future for you and your family tomorrow.

Campus Gatherings

Problems relating to assemblies, concerts, lectures, chapel services, and other general gatherings came in for criticism or praise, mostly praise. The following editorial, entitled "As Students See It," was clipped from the Southwest Baptist College *News Letter*:

The chapel services here at Southwest Baptist College during this semester have been nothing short of wonderful. The students have received many great religious messages which will undoubtedly influence their thinking for many years to come.

We have had the great Baptist leaders from all over the Southern Baptist Convention as our chapel speakers this semester, and I am safe in saying that no other college in the nation could have had better religious services for its students. This has all been a part of a great plan of the leaders of the school to make Southwest one of the best religious schools in the country.

In these speakers we have seen many differences in personalities, and therefore we have had a great variety of thoughts and ideas placed before us; giving us a very broad experience in religion. These religious experiences play a large and important part in our life here on the campus. They give us

something that is very necessary to the well-rounded college life.

The students of the school do appreciate this interest of the school leaders in making our campus more "Christ-like," and we are thankful for every chapel service that we have had.

Southwest will continue to grow with high ideals, and these ideals are going to be perpetuated in the years to come.

Campus Conduct

An almost universal theme for editorial comment related to the conduct of students on and off the campus—in classroom and library, at intercollegiate games, and in public places generally. The old question of cheating was aired good and plenty, and student honor was advocated with evangelical zeal. From *Vanguard*, of the Vanport College Center, Portland, Oregon, we find an editorial that may interest both sides of the teacher's desk:

It was shown by a recent survey in *This Week* magazine, 97 per cent of all human beings are liars, whether in a mild or intense degree. It is abnormal to be otherwise. In direct contrast to this is the trait called honesty. This trait's percentage is not high. A group of teachers were sent a list of books and they were asked to check the books they had read. Every teacher checked books that were not in existence. Were they not also cheaters, cheating themselves the most?

Complete honesty, in itself, is hard to achieve, but with all the opportunities for dishonesty, it is almost impossible. The greatest dishonesty is not in trying to raise one's grades or position, but is in cheating one's self of what he might learn through study.

The Christmas Spirit

The North Dakota State School of Science, "where students learn by doing," located at Wahpeton, North Dakota, is a publicly supported institution. The editorial on the "Christmas Spirit" in the *Dakota Scientist* will be of interest, especially to those who sometimes think that religious idealism is lacking in public schools:

What if Christmas came 365 days a year?

That would mean that that intriguing phenomenon commonly called Christmas spirit would prevail every day of our lives. Have you ever stopped to analyze that "spirit"? It is something that is very abstract, yet more powerful in bringing out goodness in man than any concrete force on earth! What else ebbs the growing tide of greedism as that yuletide spirit which rushes through a person's veins on hearing the powerful strains "Peace on earth, good will towards men"? What else leaves him more happy to give to his fellow-man, more willing to forgive his enemies, and, its greatest compulsion, more wanting of God, than while filled with Christmas spirit?

There is no other time of year when so many turn their faces toward the church and relax unafraid of insecurity and confident of peace in the arms of Christ. Christmas spirit—above all it shines as the brightest hope of peace.

However this "spirit" comes only once a year and prevails too short a time to overcome its two great enemies—greedism and indifference. We are somewhat restrained in coping with greedism insofar as it saps the "spirit" from so many foreign peoples, but, during and after our own celebrating, we

ought to be able to thrust the spirit of greed out of our own country.

Why ever be indifferent towards the force of the Christmas spirit which, if it prevailed in all men 365 days a year, would free this world from fear of extermination?

Civic Obligations

Practically two-thirds of the student papers editorialized on the duties of citizens, often with special reference to the recent election. From the *Chinook* of the Casper Junior College, Casper, Wyoming, comes an editorial with the rather unusual slant regarding the election of one of the students to the Wyoming state legislature:

A nation that went "Wild about Harry" a couple of Tuesdays ago is settling down for a well-deserved rest after the rigors of election campaigning.

Democrats, as well as their outnumbered opponents, are adjusting themselves to the arduous business of running the country. Poll-takers are still inflating the aspirin market, and Henry Wallace is wondering what went wrong with his hybrid corn.

The elections had personal emphasis in CJC with the successful candidacy of Sophomore, Doug Speas, who ran for the State Legislature on the Democratic ticket. Mr. Speas' election sets a new and distinctive precedent for the college. It is an achievement well worth recognition and congratulations on the part of the student body.

Enforce or Repeal

This writer knows that students, generally speaking, are haters of

hypocrisy and double-dealing of all kinds. Usually their enforcement of student regulations is more severe than is the case with the faculties. Wordsworth wrote about the "trailing clouds of glory" in which we come into the world, but as we grow older they "fade into the light of common day." The realistic and honest approach to civic questions, also reflected in a number of other editorials on various subjects, is reprinted from the *Tom-Tom* of the East Central Junior College, Decatur, Mississippi:

Many worthy citizens of our fair state chuckle to themselves as they read the fun-makers' jibes at Mississippi—"They will vote dry as long as they can stagger to the polls." A chuckle; then the worthy citizen reads onward without wondering, "Are our laws working?" Specifically, every Mississippian should ask himself, "Are our

prohibition laws working?" For the most part, the answer is NO. Legislators, following the will of the people, have enacted liquor laws which would, if properly enforced, rid the state of its liquor traffic. In reality, the majority of our state is no more dry than the jarred specimens in the zoölogy lab. The statutes themselves are adequate, but they are useless on the books. They must be enforced.

We can drive to some surrounding cities and see, on the way, people flaunting the laws of our great state. We know the laws will work, for in Newton County, the grass growing in front of deserted roadside stands is ample proof of their effectiveness. If one county can enforce the law, so can others, if they so desire.

These laws must either be made to work, or be repealed; otherwise, the citizens are being encouraged to become habitual law-breakers. The choice rests on the elected law-enforcement agencies of Mississippi.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

W. EMERSON RECK, *Public Relations: A Program for Colleges and Universities*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xiv + 286. \$3.00.

This book is addressed primarily to university and college administrative officers, but it can be read with value by everyone associated with these institutions. The study is indorsed by the Association of American Colleges, the American College Public Relations Association, and the American Council on Public Relations. Mr. Reck has drawn on his wide and successful experience as director of public relations at Colgate University for the source of much of the information contained in the very practical treatment of the public-relations programs he discusses. The principles and procedures which are emphasized are in most cases applicable to business, industry, and labor groups.

This is not a publicity book. Too many colleges and universities are already giving emphasis to publicity without sufficient preparation for the scrutiny which such publicity will bring them. In doing so they are revealing their lack of perspicacity by placing the cart before the horse. . . .

This book is concerned with public relations. As such it seeks to clarify the relationships between publicity and public relations . . . and to emphasize the steps and the means, the policies and the people through which good public relations can be achieved.

The major objective of this book, in short, is to show *why* and *how* good public relations are the foundation for any lasting success a college or university may achieve [p. xiii].

In chapter i the author lists and describes ten basic principles of a well-planned program of public relations. These principles are, for the most part, compounded of good common sense based on study and experience. Public relations is first and foremost a matter of policy.

It should be evident by this time that the public relations of any institution can be defined as the sum total of all the impressions made by the institution itself and the various persons connected with it. The appearance, the action, the speech, and the writings of every person associated with a college contribute toward the general impression of the institution, and any adverse opinion created, whether it be by the president, a student, or the switchboard operator, may have far-reaching effects [p. 8].

In chapter ii the point is again emphasized that public relations is a way of life for an entire institu-

tion, not the job of a few individuals. There then follows a description of eleven steps which the author believes an institution must go through in order to develop an organized public-relations program. The first step, and one which is emphasized strongly throughout the remainder of the book, is the employment of a competent person to organize and direct the public-relations work. The other ten steps are:

2. Make maximum use of the public-relations director in a counseling capacity.
3. Determine the institution's publics.
4. Secure and analyze the reactions of the institution's various publics to its objectives, services, policies, and ideals.
5. Study the needs of the institution.
6. Co-ordinate all public-relations activities.
7. Educate members of the college family to their part in the public-relations program.
8. Weigh every proposed policy to avoid hasty or unwise action.
9. Consider every possibility for improving public relations with each of the institution's publics.
10. Consider every possibility for improving public relations through the various publics.
11. Provide adequate funds and personnel for the job [pp. 17-19].

Chapter iii discusses the public-relations director, his personal characteristics, and his official relationships to the college family. Considerable attention is given to the relationships which should exist be-

tween the president of the college and the director. One chapter is devoted to the organization and integration of the program of public relations. This chapter contains a working chart for an organizational setup which may be helpful to anyone contemplating development of a public-relations program. Another chapter is devoted to the essential details of planning such a program. Underlying the whole philosophy of the study is a feeling of the necessity for understanding the other person's point of view:

Before a college or university can have good public relations *through* its publics, however, it must have good public relations *with* them. This means that

It must understand these publics and their interests.

It must key its policies and activities to serve the interests of its publics to the greatest possible degree.

It must interpret its policies and program so that its publics will have complete understanding of their worth both to them and to society in general [p. 67].

Another portion of the study presents discussions and examples of public relations with the following groups: prospective students and parents; the local community, educators, and sister-institutions; donors and prospective donors; editors and radio officials; and other publics of various kinds.

The balance of the book discusses the avenues through which public relations are obtained: staff mem-

bers, students, alumni, the curriculum, research, the campus, special events and services, the telephone, correspondence, and publicity. Here again Reck gives many case histories of good and bad public relations obtained as a result of contacts which are made through these various avenues. The final chapter is devoted to "Ethics and Public Relations."

The entire discussion is illustrated with hundreds of case experiences which provide specific guidance for any college wishing to improve its public-relations program. The author has drawn upon the experience and testimony of more than 450 colleges and universities for his illustrative material.

In spite of the fact that the junior college is not mentioned or considered in the treatment of the subject by the author, much of the book is applicable to the junior-college situation and can be studied with profit by all personnel of such institutions. This is especially true when one considers that the junior college exists in such a variety of forms and types of organization. This study defines the principles and organizational plans for sound public relations, and it describes the various types of publics with which relations have to be satisfactorily maintained.

This reader has the impression that the author has been too much concerned with being good for the

sake of getting a reward. In his illustrations the result of good procedure was a fine donation in nearly every case; and in cases where poor procedure was followed, contemplated donations were withdrawn. One cannot help wishing that less emphasis had been placed on possible financial rewards for carrying on good public-relations work. Undoubtedly there are other compensations which are equally important. Perhaps one should not look for compensations at all for doing what ought to be done.

A study of this book also tends to leave the impression that the major, and perhaps the only, problems with which a college is faced are those of public relations and that, if these are properly handled, there will be no other problems of any significance. It is possible that too much absorption in public relations to the neglect of other areas of importance might cause the college administration to fall into a dilatory and vacillating educational program which would wreak havoc with sound educational achievement. These criticisms may not be so serious as they first appear to be, if one keeps in mind that the author is developing only a single phase of the college program and limits himself to that phase. The wary reader will realize that this study is not meant to be a comprehensive discussion of the entire field of college administration.

The study provides a valuable and comprehensive treatment of the public-relations aspects of any college administration and can be read with profit by all college, university, and junior-college personnel. It is a practical, easily understood, well-illustrated study. It provides a positive addition to the literature in this field and treats of a subject too often neglected by those who should be most concerned.

The principal objective of the *planned* public-relations program as emphasized in earlier chapters is to win friends and influence people—to convert members of a college or university's various publics into enthusiastic supporters of and boosters for the institution and its program. When that objective has been accomplished, and only then, can it be said that the program is succeeding [p. 67].

MARVIN C. KNUDSON, *President*

PUEBLO JUNIOR COLLEGE

PUEBLO, COLORADO

Selected References

S. V. MARTORANA

BOGUE, JESSE P. "The Community College," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIV (Summer, 1948), 285-95.

Discusses the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education in relation to its potential influence on the community-college movement. Following an introductory statement that the report has assigned to the community college a place of enough significance to make the report a historical turning-point in education, there is presented a brief summary of the growth of the movement since the origin of the idea late in the past century to the organization of the American Association of Junior Colleges in 1920.

"Now comes the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. We predict that for the junior-college movement this Report will be as significant in many respects as was the clarification of the idea by President Harper and the organization of the movement by Dr. Zook." This prediction is made on the basis of four considerations.

"First, higher education is approached from the point of view of its essential significance *nationally*." The Commission, appointed by the President of the United States and given national funds for its historic work, gives increased importance to the demand that equal opportunities for education at all levels must be a basic inheritance of all people of this nation as a policy of national welfare.

"Second, higher education is approached from the standpoint of its functional unity on a *state-wide* basis. Functional unity of education within a state is not to be misunderstood as an exclusively unified state system. . . . Stronger and better-financed state leadership, greater freedom of education from political party influences, a consideration of all types of sound education to make for variety but within unity and completeness should be the goal for the several states. In this general plan the community-college concept takes a prominent place." The greater significance of the community-college concept, Bogue notes further, lies in the fact that it opens for students and adults more

and broader intellectual highways on which they may advance to the limits of their native abilities and interests.

"Third, higher education is approached on the basis of its function to meet the needs of the local community, in the community." A parallel is drawn between the philosophy of the community college for America and that of the folk schools of Scandinavian countries and the county colleges of England. "Their primary purpose is to enrich the quality of community living in order to enable the people to enjoy the fruits of their labors. . . . Hence, all artificial barriers to educational opportunity must be removed. An equal chance for education for every American child must become a settled democratic policy in this nation."

"Fourth, community and junior colleges will advance when better methods of finance are provided for them. . . . The influence and prestige of the President's Commission will add greatly to the weight of arguments advanced for years for better financing of the community college." Branching off from the main current of discussion, Bogue then says that, in some states, extension centers and technical institutes supported by higher educational institutions may meet community needs but only in cases where the supporting institution is aware of the unique concept of the community college, where the largest possible local autonomy is permitted, and where the institution can take on the flavor of community thinking and planning as well as a measure of community support. "It is recognized, however, that a true community college must have the enthusiastic interest and active participation of the community itself. If extension centers are to be instituted, the parent university must beware of the many shortcomings of absentee educational landlordism."

The concluding comment emphasizes the potential public-relations utility of the Report of the President's Commission and the manner in which such use of the document is being planned by the American Association of Junior Colleges. "Summer conferences, workshops, and regular courses of study in the field of the junior college should give

large consideration to the Report. Already some junior colleges are holding faculty meetings for the specific purpose of making a critical analysis of the Report. . . . In any event, the real value of the Report will be in the extent of its understanding by the citizens of the country, the degree of common convictions regarding its implications, and the resolves made by our citizens that these implications shall result in appropriate action."

GEYER, GEORGE H. "Reorganization in California," *Nation's Schools*, XLII (October, 1948), 46-47.

Describes the development in California of the State Commission on School Districts and the mode of functioning of this and related subsidiary bodies in constructing a program of reorganization designed to bring about a greater equalization of educational opportunity at the local level, to supplement the far-reaching state-wide financial equalization program. Though the article does not bear directly on the issue of location of junior colleges, much of the discussion has implications for these educational units. An example is one of the suggestions which is quoted from the manual of procedures and criteria developed by the staff of the state commission to guide local survey committees. It reads: "The junior college, as a part of the state's common-school program, wherever regionally desirable, should be under a board of education which governs elementary and lower secondary schools."

JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "College Programs of Less than Four Years—The Community College," *Current Trends in Higher Education*, pp. 107-13. Edited by Ralph W. McDonald and James L. McCaskill. Official Group Reports of the Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education Held at Chicago, Illinois, March 22-25, 1948. Washington: Department of Higher

Education of the National Education Association, 1948.

Suggests that a junior-college education will increasingly become the heritage of American youth, much as high school education is today. In answer to the query presumed to follow this suggestion, namely, the reasons why more education is needed for young people, four answers are advanced: "(1) Technological developments are postponing the date of original employment for youth. . . . (2) Society and our entire civilization are becoming increasingly complex to the extent that the citizenry of our nation requires an extended education in order to live intelligently. . . . (3) There is an increasingly large number of occupations for which post-high-school training of less than four years is required. . . . (4) If democracy is to survive, our nation requires an educated citizenry." The last objective, it is held, is that in which all the other purposes and aspirations of our educational system really culminate. "It is this objective which particularly creates a demand for the upward extension of education."

Consideration of the best means by which post-high-school education of less than four years' duration can be provided directs attention to the community college: "If we wish to extend upward the education of our nation's youth, it will be necessary to provide post-high-school education at the community (or at the very least at commuting) level."

If the need for community post-high-school education of less than four years is granted, how should community colleges be planned, supported, and controlled? Again, four answers are presented: "(1) Regional (ordinarily state-wide) planning is essential in projecting the location and establishment of community colleges. . . . (2) Since the community college will ordinarily be a tax-supported public institution, it should receive state as well as local financial support. . . . (3) Wherever possible, the community college will be tuition free. . . . (4) Since the community college will ordinarily aim to serve the specific educational needs of a specific community, control of the college should ordinarily rest at the community rather than at the state level."

Turning to some more particularized characteristics of post-high-school education, Johnson offers ten practices which ought to be followed in community colleges. The list is admitted not to be exhaustive but merely suggestive of trends and practices. Each point is elaborated at some length. Noted topically, they are:

"1. The community college must develop a close relationship with the high school or high schools of the area it serves." This, it is suggested, may be achieved by an organizational plan, such as the 6-4-4, or by concentration on guidance and curriculum articulation improvements.

"2. The community college must build its program on the basis of the needs and resources (educational and occupational, human and material) of the community." Such techniques as community advisory boards, surveys of student personnel, and work-study experience are deemed helpful to arrive at such a program.

"3. The community college must provide an education for students of varying aptitudes and abilities—not only verbal and academic but also social, artistic, mechanical, and motor."

"4. The community college must use all varieties of instructional experiences and aids to learning. . . . The community college, the students of which may have less verbal aptitude—and greater talents in other areas—will not dare to rely upon the usual verbal approach to learning."

"5. The community college must employ a faculty, the interests, training, and experience of which extend beyond the usual academic areas."

"6. The community college must provide for the common general-education needs of all students; both for those who will continue their formal education beyond the community college and for those for whom the community college is terminal."

"7. Since the purpose of the community college is to meet the educational needs of the community and its youth, maximum flexibility must be provided so that all parts of the educational program can be adapted to the needs of the community and the students. This implies provision of courses and cur-

riculums of varying lengths and offerings adjusted to the needs of both full-time and part-time students.

"8. If it is adequately to meet the needs of the community, the college will need to provide education for adults as well as for the youth of the community."

"9. The community college must provide guidance for its students—guidance that is educational, vocational, and personal; guidance that includes placement and follow-up."

"10. The community college must constantly engage in a program of appraisal and reappraisal of its total program" to provide the staff and constituency with means of judging the effectiveness of its program and with means of validly projecting improvements.

MEDSKER, LELAND L. "Significant Issues in the Junior-College Curriculum," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIII (May, 1948), 296-99.

Exhorts junior colleges to think through again their objectives and philosophy and to re-evaluate their progress in terms of this rethinking. The intent of the discussion is stated to be to raise two fundamental questions which persons interested in the junior college may use as a check in measuring progress in the attempt to keep curriculums up to date with changing responsibilities.

Before the two basic interrogations are advanced, however, Medsker draws attention to some of the factors which are considered to be those now giving impetus to the junior-college movement and, at the same time, are shaping its nature and purposes, thus influencing the curriculum. These factors are: (1) the growth that has occurred both in the number of junior colleges and in the number of students enrolled in junior colleges during the past two years; (2) the attention which has recently been focused on the junior college by important state, regional, and national groups and, with this, the emerging concept that the junior college has a unique function as a community college dedicated to serve all local needs; and

(3) the tendency in some states for the state university and other higher educational institutions to extend service to local communities, creating in some localities a controversial situation which impels the local junior college to become something more than a college-preparatory institution.

Against the background situation so described, attention is then centered on the two questions raised in the article. The first of these asks junior-college personnel: "Have we thought through our basic philosophy and objectives again in line with the community-college idea?" Medsker elaborates argumentatively: "If curriculum development is to be governed by the fundamental philosophy and objectives of an institution—and there is every reason to believe that it should—then the institution should take steps to see that it is up to date in its objectives. If the objectives were originally set up for the type of institution that is different from the type that should prevail today, a reorientation is necessary. If individual faculty members are to be effective teachers and good curriculum makers, they should participate in the process—either of thinking through the original objectives (if the objectives are still appropriate) or of assisting in the development of new ones."

To assist in this rethinking process, a statement of a well-defined basic philosophy should be formulated to serve as a guide for the entire institution. Beyond this, however, should be the development of specific objectives consistent with the basic philosophy of the institution. "These objectives should be more than mere itemized statements on the three or four general aims that so often appear in college catalogues. It is desirable to name each of the areas implied in the basic philosophy and to list these definitions under each such head: knowledge and understandings; skills and abilities; and attitudes, ideals, and appreciations."

The second question raised in the article is: "Have we evaluated our curriculum in terms of our philosophy and objectives?" Expanding the thought thus provoked, Medsker states that an interesting and helpful project for any junior college is to re-

evaluate its entire offerings in relation to its defined objectives. After this inquiry has been made, the task of evaluation should be extended within each department to the various course offerings in the department.

Medsker discusses the implications for the curriculum which are inherent in the trend for junior colleges to become community colleges. "As the junior college tends to become a community college, its curriculum must acquire characteristics which the typical junior college does not now possess. For one thing, there probably will be less emphasis on the pre-professional function, although it is inconceivable that the preparatory function should ever be eliminated from the junior college. The offerings in general education undoubtedly will not only become more numerous, but they also will be better organized and integrated." Other changes which are held to be necessary include more

realistic vocational offerings, with emphasis on training for broad areas rather than for specific vocations, special interest courses for adults, and community-service courses to fill specific local needs. "If . . . the junior-college movement is to reach its highest level of attainment, the long-term direction must involve frequent attention to the overall consideration of the curriculum—regardless of changing pressures."

STRAYER, G. D. "California's Needs in Higher Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIII (April, 1948), 236-38.

A discussion of the findings and recommendations of the survey of the needs of California in higher education. Abstract of the full report appeared in the October, 1948, issue of the *Junior College Journal*.

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